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The Amateur Spirit

in

Scholastic Games and Sports

BY
FREDERICK RAND ROGERS

*" while the dazzling brightness
of supreme hopes lies far off, fascinating
and still, on the distant edge of the hori-
zon."*

—JOSEPH CONRAD

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To

K. D.

an amateur in life

Introduction

Part I of this volume derives its primary sanction from an educational principle of hoary age which has recently been rediscovered by educational philosophers and given scientific confirmation by experimental psychology: that *children learn by doing*; and that they learn best when they are given freedom to make their own choices and when they are made responsible for the consequences thereof.

Recently this principle has been applied to inter-school sports with the result that the tradition of adult-controlled games, in which the coach makes the most important choices and assumes responsibility, has been rejected; and "player freedom with responsibility" has been placed in its stead.

To build a new tradition, no matter how sound in theory and successful in practice, is always a difficult task. Certain persons have been gracious enough to intimate that player freedom with responsibility is now enjoying satisfactory growth, but it was a hope that even more rapid progress might be made in colleges and universities as well as in the lower schools, and in other states as well as in New York, which prompted the writer to undertake a summarization of goals thus far attained, to point out the educational values of the new order, and to answer the major criticisms advanced by those who were unacquainted either with the theory underlying the rule or with the results of actual practice.

Part I may seem complete within itself, but the reader who so judges will have missed the author's deeper purpose. Part II constitutes the very heart of the volume and must be seen as such or Part I may be misinterpreted. It is apparent to the writer that the observations contained in Part II may confuse the immediate issues involved in the development of the new tradition; and it is even possible that their publication at this time may postpone wider acceptance of the so-called General Regulation No. 1. Nevertheless the chapters on Fair Play, Victory, Competition and Amateurism are included in an attempt to render to those who are immediately responsible for the physical and moral welfare of school children "that complete sincerity which, while it delivers one into the hands of one's enemies is as likely as not to embroil one with one's friends." For Part II constitutes a sort of philosophy of play, (and of life, too, which is play on a broader stage) which provides the highest sanction for the move to return to players themselves the privileges of playing their own games. Unless coaches are freed of a burden they never should have borne, and the players themselves are given freedom to choose and are made responsible for the consequences of their choices, fair play and the amateur spirit will have a difficult time of it at best.

The writer neither expects nor desires that the policies and programs outlined hereafter will be accepted immediately or without criticism, for certain ones may be so out of tune with modern life that they ought to

be rejected. It may be that that Spenglerian triumvirate, Caesarism, money and the press, will proclaim the universal morality of victory, laud the dynamic power of personal competition and ridicule fair play. If the decline of Western civilization be a myth, however, or at least if it be susceptible of arrest and redirection, hopes for a new and more joyous play-life of our people may be fulfilled. At present the road seems long, the way seems hard and success appears to lie far off—but the goal, even though it be a rainbow's end, is worthy. The reader who senses, in the pages which follow, the outlines of a plan for preserving in youth the essence of its own spirit will be possessed of enough understanding to forgive the weaknesses of its exposition.

FREDERICK RAND ROGERS.

December, 1928.

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PART I

Player Freedom with Responsibility —Prerequisites to Amateurism

The Amateur Spirit in Scholastic Games and Sports

Let us raise a standard to which the wise and just may repair. The event is in the hands of God.—GEORGE WASHINGTON

CHAPTER I

General Regulation Number One

On June 2, 1927 a group of school superintendents from the Capital District met in the Regents Room of the State Education Building at Albany to discuss ways and means of improving athletics in their respective cities. One outcome of this meeting was a determination to give schoolboy athletes the rights and privileges of playing their own games unhampered by the interference of adults. This policy led to a mutual agreement to instruct all coaches to refrain from interfering with the conduct of interscholastic games from the opening of each game until its close and to prevent other adults from so interfering, thus leaving exclusively to the players themselves the responsibilities of choosing substitutes and determining strategy both during the course of play, and during all rest periods.

This action of the Capital District school administrators was followed by similar rules made for their cities by the directors of physical education in Buffalo, Rochester and Syracuse; and on October 20, 1927 at its regular fall meeting, the Central Committee of the New York State Public High School Athletic Asso-

ciation, which formulates and administers eligibility rules and state tournaments for the high schools of New York State, adopted by a unanimous vote a rule which was classified as "General Regulation Number One." As modified at the December 27, 1927 meeting of the Central Committee, and as followed since, it reads:

1. In sectional and state championship contests, after the contest has begun, no coach or other adult, save the duly constituted officials governing the contests, shall interfere with the activity of the contestants.

2. This regulation *must* be interpreted as prohibiting sideline coaching, which is now prohibited by rules in certain sports, and also as prohibiting substitutions, or coaching between halves, by any others than the contestants themselves.

3. Violation of this regulation shall result in the suspension of the school whose representative is at fault, for a period of one calendar year from the date of infringement.

4. This rule does not prohibit a coach or his representative from ordering the withdrawal of any contestant at any time, for any reason, but no contestant withdrawn by a coach or his representative may return to the same contest.

Coaches may attend to physical injuries of their team members at any time during games or between periods of play.

5. This regulation should not be interpreted as a restriction upon the legitimate activities of adults responsible for the education of youth; on the contrary, it should be welcomed by such persons as emancipating them from a responsibility which has hampered their influence as teachers.

The responsibility of coaches to develop character, sportsmanship and leadership as well as playing skill is recognized and emphasized by this regulation.

6. It is suggested that coaches remain together during the

playing periods, and that each send a representative to the other's dressing or resting quarters during intermissions. This suggestion is offered to protect coaches from accusations of bad faith.

The effect of this Regulation is to *guarantee to the players the rights and benefits of playing their own games*. In football, for example, no coach may send in a substitute with orders to the captain or quarterback to do this or that. In basketball, likewise, the players must cope with their problems unassisted. In baseball, where many coaches are accustomed to dictate in great detail, the boys must, under the new adjustment, make all the choices themselves.

Thus, wherever the General Regulation is followed the game again becomes sport between two teams of eleven (or nine or five) players on the field, instead of twelve (or ten or six), the extra man being an adult non-player on a bench attempting to do the bulk of the thinking. Stated otherwise, under the new adjustment the activity becomes a game by, for, and of the boys, rather than between the coaches, forced by tradition and public opinion to use boys as pawns for the amusement of a more or less hysterical crowd.

The necessity for this new regulation of schoolboys' sports arose as a direct consequence of the practice (which has grown rapidly among public school and college coaches), of circumventing the rules which prohibit interference by outsiders. In American football, for example, Rule III, Section 1 provides a penalty

of fifteen yards loss of distance for bringing information into a game from the sidelines: but the rule is easily nullified by the common practice of having the incoming player withhold his message until one play has been completed, after which he divulges the precious information to an expectant and eager quarterback. Formerly such methods were considered unethical, but today the practice is so common that it may not be recognized at once, even by the expert, as a clear violation of the spirit of both the rule quoted and Rule XXII, Section 1 which provides that *there shall be no coaching, either by substitutes or any other person not participating in the game.*

Under the new adjustment the athletic coach again becomes a teacher whose responsibility for and contact with his students ends when the playing field is reached. Thereafter, in games as well as in examinations or debates, it becomes the teacher's duty to prevent any other outsiders from interfering with his pupils as they engage in their testing activity. His responsibility as always is to teach, but his pupils now assume once more the responsibility of demonstrating what they have learned, whether it be skill, strategy and team play, or initiative, fair play, courage, perseverance, cooperation, sympathy and loyalty.

Nor, under this Regulation, are the coach's legitimate activities interfered with. On the contrary, he is freed of the burden of planning and guiding the play, and may again turn his attention exclusively to the important tasks of protecting his pupils' health and

safeguarding the game in the interests of the players. Under the new adjustment coaches need not feel so keenly the pressure for "victory" and the following comment on a metropolitan editorial page, which has been well-deserved, may not now apply:

. . . There is entirely too much of this sort of thing in football (keeping injured players in the game for the sake of "victory"). Boys are sent into games with sprained ankles, dislocated elbows, broken ribs, heads that are known to be sensitive to the lightest tap, tissues that will give trouble if bruised, and all sorts of similar things that should disqualify them automatically. . . . Have football coaches no sense at all? Is a boy to run the risk of being crippled for life just to help good old Siwash win a football game?¹

¹ The New York Sun, October 20, 1927.

CHAPTER II

Two Pictures Contrasted

The set of the tide of North American schoolboys' sports in the direction of closer and closer control of games by a coach who sits on the sidelines is all too evident. One has but to attend any football game of major importance today to witness the practice and learn the truth. At every crisis the question in the minds and on the lips of those who know is: "What will the coach do now?" and as the tired players return to their dressing quarters between halves spectators know, or are entitled by tradition and common practice to expect, that both teams will receive such scathing and whole-souled "lectures" that the second half will provide a "real battle."

These practices of controlling the game from the sidelines are so well known that it should be unnecessary here to offer proof of their existence. As well offer proof that the games are played at all! And yet, when the challenge has been offered to the coaches of America to leave off interfering with the games of their students, the statement is often made that the imputation is, for the great majority of coaches, unwarranted. For coaches generally to make such an assertion would be absurd. "Putting in substitutes" is

considered to be the coach's special prerogative, but what more effective way can there be of taking the game out of the hands of the players and controlling its destiny than by changing the identity of the team?

Proof is not far to seek that coach-control of inter-school contests is general. One need but propose to coaches that they abandon their management of the game itself to reveal how deeply rooted are their controlling interests and habits. Within the past eighteen months the writer has met coaches of all qualities and types and has yet to find a group of these men who, at first thought, did not passionately reject the suggestion that players be permitted to select their own substitutes and solve their own problems between halves.¹

This attitude is well illustrated by a resolution passed without a dissenting vote last spring by the Massachusetts State Coaches Association¹ in which the new-old plan of permitting teams, through their captains, to guide the playing of their own games was unqualifiedly condemned. It is even more graphically pictured by the following dramatic account:

. . . But the football coach at Drake University had a few words with the varsity football captain at Drake University last week, and these few words indicate the monstrous gap between the old order and the new idea. "Off the field!" said the Drake coach to the Drake captain. "And don't come back again!"

Fancy that.

¹At a regular meeting attended by over 200 high school coaches held in Cambridge, Massachusetts on March 31, 1928.

This summary dismissal of the Drake captain in the "never darken my door again!" manner is merely the outward sign of the great internal change in intercollegiate football conditions. . . .¹

Any sports page will yield similar evidence of the fact that schoolboys' games are rapidly becoming contests between coaches rather than players. What could be more eloquent than the following headline stretching across the entire top of a New York sporting page: "Fury of Roper's Tongue May Win for Princeton" or the heading to an Associated Press dispatch telegraphed to New York: "Row Over Wilce May Inspire Men to Beat Chicago."²

The athletic coach's best friend and advertiser—the sports writer—already has become specific, as is shown in the following quotation:³

Players Are Robots

Football, unfortunately, has become a business as well as a game. The players, under the supervision of expert coaches have been transformed into robots who function according to directions. Individualism has been merged into collectivism and ingenuity has been squelched by mechanical adherence to given assignments. . . .

The actions taken by a group of Long Island coaches, (reported on page 62) and by the Capital District coaches (reported on page 11) indicate how completely do coaches themselves change their attitudes and policies after deliberating on the merits of the new as opposed to the traditional order.

¹ From a sporting page feature article by John Kieran in the New York Times, October 18, 1927.

² Dated Chicago, October 25, 1928.

³ From a sports editorial by Edwin B. Dooley, in the New York Sun, December 10, 1928.

The *coup de force* is given in a cartoon appearing in the October 19, 1928 issue of *Life* which pictures a football stadium during a game; the stands are choked with hysterical fans, but the foreground is dominated by two coaches who glare at each other across the field. To their fingers are attached strings by which they control the actions of players on the field, and on their sweaters are emblazoned large dollar signs. The caption beneath the pictures reads, *May the Best Coach Win*. When a situation becomes so common that it can safely be caricatured in a popular magazine having a national circulation the protestations of those who deny its existence only indicate how far practice has strayed from the ideal, even of those who profess to uphold the ideal.

In happy contrast to the current custom of directing interschool athletic events from the bench, as gently reproved by *Life*, many of the leading public high schools in New York State and elsewhere now provide regular demonstrations of an entirely different policy. Guided by the General Regulation or its equivalent coaches no longer glare at each other across the field of battle or pull the strings to which their marionettes are attached, but actually sit together, intent on the play of their teams; either silent before the spectacle of approaching victory or defeat, or exchanging views on the vicissitudes of play, according to their temperaments and the incidents of the game. That this new situation is not only possible but also exists in fact is

proved every week in hundreds of schoolboy contests throughout New York State. That it is entirely wholesome will be apparent to all educators, parents and coaches whose primary goal is the development of pupil personality.

In Buffalo, for example, the General Regulation has enjoyed the most careful administration and has yielded the most effective results. The fifty to seventy thousand spectators who attended the Buffalo city high school football games during the fall of 1928 witnessed games played by the boys and controlled by the boys from the opening play until the final whistle. No adult, save referees and umpires, was permitted on the field or even near the sidelines. A physician was present (seated some hundred feet from the players' bench) to attend to injuries. Coaches were placed in the press box where they communicated by telephone with a special official on the field in case they desired to remove any players from the game. These coaches did not see the players between halves, but left their health to be cared for by the physician.¹

That such a procedure succeeded in a large city and in a sport where the coach is often considered the one indispensable person is ample evidence of the practicability of the new adjustment. In Buffalo today coaches take their places in the press box during game-time as a matter of course, players accept their respon-

¹ The attitudes of the Buffalo players towards this program are indicated by the statements of some of them, a few of which are printed on pages 28 to 32.

sibilities as normal and proper, and newspaper writers approve the new adjustment¹; while spectators know they are witnessing a game played by the boys themselves without guidance from any other source than their own intelligence and experience.

The Buffalo picture, however, is not typical. It represents an ideal which school authorities may safely and properly realize. A typical picture in New York today is of two coaches sitting together with their teams strung out on their right and left hands, or of the coaches, trainers, physicians, managers and other adults sitting on a bench apart from both teams.

A rule formulated by the coaches in the Capital District and in force in twenty-nine schools of this section is given here to illustrate another conception of an ideal situation.

(a) Both teams, including only players in uniform, scorers, managers, trainers and coaches, and any others authorized by the director of physical education in charge of the local field, shall sit together on the left side of the field chosen by the visitors. (Neither coaches nor other adults permitted to sit with players in uniform are required to do so.)

(b) Either or both coaches may act at any time in the capacity of *trainers* in case of apparent exhaustion or injury during the game, when accompanied by a representative of the other team. At the end of the first half both coaches should be present at a common meeting place, provided by the

¹The following comment appeared in the Buffalo Evening News after the first high school football games of the year were played: "Coachless football seems to be a success. The Saturday games functioned smoothly in spite of the fact that mentors were prohibited from appearing on the field of play or imparting instructions to their teams after the games started."

physical director in charge of the local field, where members of both teams needing physical care may be treated.

(c) When either coach desires to remove a player from the game, such removal shall be effected by an official messenger, designated by the director of physical education in charge of the field. This messenger shall act for both teams. The messenger shall report to the umpire the name of the player to be removed from the game, after which the umpire shall stop the game in the usual manner, and remove the designated player from the game. The substitute shall be chosen by the acting captain on the field. (Players removed by the coach may not return to the same contest.)

(d) A common dressing room for both teams should be provided if possible.

(e) Only such referees and officials as are in sympathy with the General Regulation should be permitted to officiate. All officials should aid coaches and directors in charge of fields in preventing other adults from interfering with the players' conduct of their games.

Thus many variations in the actual picture are possible under the rule which permits coaches as close personal contact with players as is desired by any of them, which permits the coach to act as trainer at any time and place, and which makes it the coach's prime duty to remove from the game any player whose physical welfare is endangered, *but* which returns to the players themselves the sole privilege of guiding the fortunes of their own contests and assuming responsibility for their own choices.

CHAPTER III

Values of Freedom with Responsibility

Outlining the values of returning to children the privileges of playing their own games is itself a privilege which can be accepted only with pleasure, for the values are so great and the assurance that the procedure is proper is so complete.

Chief among the immediate values¹ of giving to players both freedom to choose and responsibility for their choices are increased self-confidence; the power and habit of making choices, that is, increased power of initiative; the increased self-respect which comes from assuming responsibilities; greater courage in meeting, unsupported, new and unexpected situations; experience in team play where cooperation depends on an internal *esprit-de-corps*, rather than on one which is imposed from without; and experience in democratic government, in which a chosen leader must be followed whether or not he gives a good account of himself. ²

These are some of the more obvious values of pupil freedom with responsibility, which men of affairs in modern life desire greatly to have the school develop

¹Ultimate values are discussed in Chapter X. By "immediate values" are meant those accruing to the pupils who actually play under the Regulation.

² See page 46 for the suggestion of an important adjustment to secure this value.

in the rising generation, and which every educator will grant are almost inevitable fruits of pupil activity with freedom under guidance, which can best be secured *only* when freedom and responsibility are complete.

Doubtless some degrees of these values are secured under the old coach-responsibility method, *but to the extent that the coach interferes he gains, at the expense of his pupils*. That the traditional method of coach-responsibility exists is not a reflection on coaches, who have been forced into an almost untenable position.¹ As well blame Annapolis and West Point for the War. But the assertion that the old method is proper is so completely erroneous that every means should be used to correct it.

For the whole trend of modern education, which is a "new youth" movement of the greatest significance, is in the direction indicated for sport by the General Regulation. Beginning with the rediscovery of the ancient tenet that "we learn by doing" educators have remodeled education on "pupil-activity" and "self-determination" principles.² But activity and self-determination are not enough. If satisfaction is to be attached to right actions and pain to wrong ones pupils must not only act but be made responsible both for their acts and for the consequences thereof.

¹ Coach Stagg of Michigan reported in 1926 that the average tenure of college football coaches in the United States is but two and one-fifth years.

² See especially *The Child-Centered School*, by Harold Rugg and Ann Schumaker, The World Book Company, 1928, a careful reading of which will serve to explain much which is barely suggested in this essay.

Freedom without responsibility, such as the modern "flapper" enjoys, is profoundly demoralizing. The flapper of either sex whose infraction of the law today is condoned tomorrow has a surfeiture of freedom and escapes responsibility. Consequently he or she does not learn, and only repeats the escapade until someone does insist on responsibility being shouldered. Then learning results! On the other hand, freedom without responsibility may provide a more demoralizing condition than that in which previous generations of children survived responsibilities but enjoyed little freedom. A rare combination of these two situations occurs today in interschool and intercollegiate athletics. The players are held responsible by their coach but are given little freedom by him, while spectators pardon the players for their mistakes but hold the coach responsible: a hopelessly demoralizing situation for all concerned.

The modern educator, instructed by the errors of both extremes and by the most fundamental laws of human behavior, seeks to guide his pupils rather than lead them: to give them opportunities for making choices and then to ensure that his pupils feel dissatisfaction over their poor choices as well as gratification over their good ones. It is this fundamental and all-pervading principle on which modern education is based that provides the essential sanction for the General Regulation.

The following statement is indicative of the con-

victions of leading educators concerning pupil freedom with responsibility:

Health education should provide the conditions for the greatest possible amount of self-direction and self-management on the part of the pupils. One cannot have parent or teacher at his elbow all of the time telling him what to do. The older an individual, the more this self-direction is possible. The schools, therefore, should employ a technique which will turn the responsibility over to the individual himself as fully as possible and as rapidly as possible.¹

Where, if not in their games, are pupils to be trusted to manage and direct their own lives; and who, if not the members of school teams—the oldest, most experienced, most carefully trained and most capable players—are better able to manage their own games? If the coach has done anything worthy of an educator he has at least taught his pupil to play without his constant intervention.

Stuart A. Courtis is even more definite:

True education results only when an individual purposes, plans, acts, judges, and generalizes for himself. Consequently after the children have once formed satisfactory purposes they must be made wholly responsible for the achievement of their purposes, the teacher abstracting himself from the situation and contenting himself with watching the struggles of the children to achieve their goals.²

Professor Courtis's dictum might have been made to order for coaches. "The teacher *abstracting* himself

¹Franklin Bobbitt in the 1925 Chicago Health Education Conference.

²Quoted from J. F. Williams *Principles of Physical Education*, 1927.

from the situation" applies nicely to the coach at an athletic contest, while "watching the struggles of the children to reach their goals" describes perfectly the situation provided by the General Regulation for football and basketball.

One more typical expression is included here further to clinch the point at issue.¹

The school that does not work persistently and continuously toward freedom falls short of doing the best that can be done to develop strong men and women. It is not a mere paradox to say that we must give people a chance to be foolish in order to teach them to be wise; there is no other way to real wisdom. It is a two-fold process; Youth must mature the power to judge fitting action, and at the same time develop the strength of will to carry it out. The wisdom which knows and the virtue which does both come only through experience; and there can be no experience where all is determined and imposed from without, however wise the ready-made formulas and however skillfully they are administered . . . and it is one of the duties of the high school to aid in leading the inexperienced child into the estate of reasoning, self-directing manhood and womanhood.

It is possible that these quotations may not have been properly applied. Certainly it is doubtful whether their authors had athletic contests in mind. Moreover, they are not psychologists primarily, and their opinions might not hold against those of specialists in fundamental *methods* of developing character.

Any candid and legitimate doubts as to the value of returning the game to the original owners should be

¹Ralph W. Pringle, in "Adolescence and High School Problems," p. 367.

set at rest by the following opinion, rendered by Dr. George F. Arps, Dean of the ^{College} School of Education at the Ohio State University, a noted American educator and psychologist:

The present practice in competitive sports whether in the secondary schools or colleges does not conform to the best principles of education. Initiative, resourcefulness, responsibility, and other highly desirable character traits cannot be developed in the youth when decisions and directions emanate from the coaches, that is from without. Decisions from within, from the boys themselves, alone, constitute the indispensable psychological conditions for the development of all those traits which compose the main objective of athletic contests. When alternative procedure, choice of action, rest with the coaches, the players behave as directed, from without, rather than as a consequence of their own thinking. Under these circumstances, growth in resourcefulness and in responsibility is seriously curtailed. The hand of the teacher should be entirely withdrawn in every contest and the players, therefore, left upon their own resources and responsibility. Intelligent self-direction rather than semi-automaton behavior would follow.

If players were left to their own devices, the teaching prior to contests would be essentially modified. Instead of imposing plays and authoritatively giving directions the coach (teacher) would direct instruction toward greater self-expression and self-dependence on the part of the student. Physical Education would thus become genuinely educative.

Nor is Dean Arps alone in his opinion. Indeed it may safely be asserted that every educator of note in the United States would gladly endorse his statement. For example, statements quite as strong as Dean Arps' and taking the same stand he takes have already been

made by Professor E. L. Thorndike (Columbia University) who states that

I am glad to endorse this new adjustment. It is essential to learning that players make their own choices. I am afraid, however, that a "high-brow" statement would not help so much as statements from players themselves.

Professor Arthur I. Gates (Columbia University) writes as follows:

If school athletic contests are to contribute to the development of ability to think in emergencies, to create plans to achieve difficult purposes, to assume leadership or to cooperate genuinely in an enterprise, they must permit the contestants to manage the game. A contest directed and dominated by a coach will contribute little to these and other phases of self-development. It may actually affect growth unfavorably. The new plan suggested for adoption in schools and universities should greatly help to restore to athletic games the educative possibilities which self-directed activities provide.

Professor Lewis M. Terman (Leland Stanford University) writes briefly:

I know very little about athletics from the technical side, but from the educational point of view I am strongly in favor of restriction of the activities of coaches. . . .

While Pechstein and MacGregor,¹ state that:

The true test of any teaching method is the extent to which it makes the individual independent of help and supervision.

It may be feared that the field of psychology is too narrow to give the broad outlook needed for momen-

¹In their textbook *Psychology of the Junior High School Pupil*.

tous decisions concerning athletic policies. Perhaps the philosopher should be consulted.

Dr. W. H. Kilpatrick, Professor of Education in Teachers College, Columbia University, writes thus concerning the General Regulation and what it may accomplish:

In my opinion the adoption of the plan to give players themselves control over their own contests during game-time is the most important improvement thus far made in the history of American secondary athletics. Its effects are astonishingly significant, far greater than the apparent simplicity of the step would ordinarily lead one to expect. The plan and the way in which it works out should be given the widest publicity, not only that high school authorities everywhere may profit by the advance, but perhaps even more that the public may be educated to insist that educational standards control athletics as truly as any other part of school life. It is also possible that in time something might be done to make college games educational.

and John Dewey writes as follows:

Many of the claims that have been made for mental and moral training by means of sport have been nullified by the fact that judgment and decisions were not left with the players. Moreover, control of the game by those who are not playing inevitably makes winning the main object of play. The regulation that restores control of the games to the students engaged in them marks, in my opinion, the greatest advance step yet taken in school athletics.

Dr. Henry W. Holmes, Dean of the Graduate School of Education in Harvard University, writes:

I am wholly in agreement with the spirit of General Regulation Number One. It seems to me an admirable step in the process of returning games to the boys that play them. The fundamental fault in intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics is that they are no longer play but gladiatorial shows in which the reputations of institutions and more particularly of coaches are at stake. The spirit of a contest in which the players are pawns in the battle of experts behind the lines is the spirit of professional athletics or of warfare, not the spirit of amateur athletics. Your regulation seems to make the coach what he ought to be, namely a teacher, and leave the game to the boys. I commend it most heartily.

Finally, Alfred E. Stearns, headmaster of the Phillips Andover Academy, writes:

I have read over carefully and with the keenest interest the "General Regulations" of the New York State Athletic Association, and most heartily endorse the object you have in view and the methods you are taking to attain it. In my judgment, those who are developing this new tradition are doing a wonderfully wholesome and increasingly necessary thing, if we are not to lose eventually the underlying and immensely important values associated with our school and college athletics. I congratulate them on their vision and fearlessness, for I am sure that both are needed if we are going to accomplish what I think we all of us feel in our hearts is necessary and right.

It should be evident, from the statements quoted above, that the weight of scientific and philosophic opinion overwhelmingly endorses the move to return freedom with responsibility to the players themselves as an eminently sound and proper educational adjust-

ment whose immediate and whole hearted adoption will result in great benefits to every athlete who enjoys its protection.

Of greatest significance are the convictions of leaders in schools of physical education for these men may most effectively develop a new tradition among their students, who will, later, determine policies in the communities where they serve.

Dr. Jesse Feiring Williams, of Teachers College, Columbia University, writes:

I fully endorse the principle of giving the players responsibility to direct their own games and the practice of this principle as proposed in the regulations of the New York State Public High School Athletic Association. If carried out with proper training of boys in the important elements in play that should be considered, it will do much to combat the professional in sport today. Its greatest possibilities, however, are constructive in character. The way to develop leadership is to give opportunity to lead. This principle in operation offers rare opportunities for the exercise of qualities of resourcefulness, self-reliance, initiative, and fair play.

I shall, in my professional courses at Teachers College, endorse this principle and commend it to my students as a sound and desirable practice.

Similar policies and programs are now being followed in the school of Physical Education of New York University; the Savage School of Physical Education in New York City; the Newark, New Jersey,

Normal School of Physical Education; the Cortland Normal School; the Ithaca School of Physical Education; the two State Teachers Colleges, and eight other normal schools in New York State.

Passing to those who combine educational training and outlook, experience and training in physical education and athletics, and responsibility for the development of practical programs—the state and city directors of physical education—practically every state official and the leading city directors in New York State endorse the principle under discussion. Expressions of approval from the state directors of physical education in California, Delaware, Connecticut, Florida, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan and West Virginia, as well as the actions of directors in all the larger cities of New York State, support the General Regulation.

If it still be objected that the opinions so far reported are theoretical or irresponsible, three replies may be given. The first is that the leading school administrators of New York State, including certain college presidents, normal school principals, city and village superintendents and high school principals (what more “practical” and “responsible” officials could be named?) have not only endorsed the principle but have embraced the practice in their own school systems.

The second reply is to point to the policies of most successful commercial and industrial organizations as ideal examples. The presidents and general managers of these models of efficiency base their entire organizations on the principle of "as much freedom as the individual can use, with full responsibility for all acts." Successful business men, when they understand the full meaning and significance of the new plan to teach young people self-guidance and responsibility through their games, are bound to endorse it as an important and indispensable program of preparation for adult life.

A third reply consists of reports of results of the utilization of the General Regulation in local, sectional and state contests and tournaments. This subject will be discussed immediately.¹

¹It is the fate of educational procedures that their merits even more than their faults are obscured by the multiplicity of influences which modify child character and by the complexity of behavior which results therefrom. Consequently a harmful practice may be continued for generations without its destructive effects being recognized, and a vital, constructive procedure may be discarded along with a score of last year's innovations, to make room for this year's experiments. It is a melancholy event, but one with which students of education are all too familiar, to meet, in the educational writings of sages long discarded or ignored, ideas, maxims, and procedures which are today being re-formulated and hailed as modern discoveries. If it were not for the binding effect of tradition, both general educators and laymen would be shocked to learn that coaches insist (and are supported in their demands) on controlling schoolboys' games. But the general educator is more to be blamed than the coach, for he has, until recently, given only superficial attention to the fundamental principles of pupil-activity and pupil-responsibility. Coaches who seek outlets for their chagrin over the exposure of their bad practice should blame the general educator for his failure to teach them proper methods, instead of railing at those who would correct their obvious error.

Since the values of pupil self-guidance and responsibility must reside in the development of pupil character, such as increased self-confidence, initiative, perseverance, courtesy, justice, cooperation, sympathy and loyalty, evidence of such growth must be found in overt expressions of these qualities. But other evidence is not necessarily invalid. If a new adjustment leads to obvious improvement in the quality and outlook of teachers, in an enriched or re-directed educational program, or even in better physical facilities and public support and confidence, surely these improvements may be counted as arguments for the new order.

The new adjustment in athletics has not been in effect long enough to provide any great abundance of proof that it is a valuable educational measure, but evidence is not lacking to indicate that it will richly merit the efforts expended in its promulgation and defense. Only a few characteristic or illustrative examples will be given here.

Considering first the development of initiative and self-confidence, a splendid example was given in Albany where the coach, after a captain and team had lost three games due to lack of these qualities, re-directed his entire coaching program to develop analyzing and leadership abilities, with the result that the season ended in a burst of successes which were earned chiefly by the display of initiative, self-confidence, courage and cooperation far surpassing those displayed by their opponents. Practically everywhere through-

out the state this experience was duplicated, though usually in lesser degrees.

Again, officials reported that games were easier to handle under the new rule. "Players do not complain so much, and coaches do not interfere" they have said. Again reporting Albany's experience, the student body decided to change the slogan, "Beat X" to "Good luck, Albany."

That the courtesies exchanged between coaches have undergone marked improvement goes without saying, and this improvement must have its effect on players.

Of greatest significance, because promising so much for a complete change in the spirit in which games are played, has been the revised attitude toward their work of those physical director-coaches who have most completely put the new idea into practice. These men have almost uniformly discovered a new meaning in physical education as well as countless new opportunities for character training in athletics. Instead of teaching how to kick, block, tackle, dribble, pass, and pivot, many of these coaches are now teaching their pupils how to plan new plays, how to use their strength more rationally, to seize more opportunities for courteous actions, to sympathize, to understand, to appreciate—in a word, to think and to be self-reliant. In one city the coaches now have a new comment to make concerning their pupils, "They are regular lawyers," is the criticism. "They want to know the reason for everything!"

"I now have five potential basketball captains on the team, each one capable of managing the squad," said one coach recently. "It is necessary to develop more leaders now. Formerly no matter who was injured or left the game, I was always there to run the team from the sidelines. Now I must prepare for any eventuality."

Thus are coaches forced, by the very nature of the new program, to change their teaching methods.

Of course the players learn the game better too. This is a minor value but one which ought to be mentioned. Formerly coaches attempted, in games they wanted to win, to prevent their players from making mistakes. But it is only by having both successes *and* failures that we truly learn. The captain who, in a recent football game, sent his best player off the field and called him back again during the first half was severely penalized, for he broke a rule, *but he learned*. The coach would not have made the mistake—and the boys might never have learned.

"How do players accept the new order?" will be asked by many. The following opinions are not offered as proofs of the value of letting boys play their own games, for players will reflect the training and attitudes of their own coaches, at least to some extent. The statements included below indicate the type of results

which may accrue to players when they are taught by competent physical educator-coaches.¹

Roy Wingard, Rochester, football player and school cheer leader :

I believe the captains should take full charge of the field or court, thus placing the credit and the responsibility for winning within the team. This allows a greater chance for individual initiative than is found when the game is controlled by the coach on the sidelines.

Harold Smith, Rochester, captain of the freshman soccer football team :

I was taught a great deal by being captain of the Freshman soccer team. It taught me to lead a group of boys my size without furious disorder so that in future years if I ever have a position of that sort I will have a better knowledge of how to act and not be too bossy. I learned the rules more carefully as I felt it my duty to be able to talk intelligently on any of the rules. Being captain puts responsibility on a fellow and running the team helped me a lot.

Louis Hatkoff, Albany, captain, 1928 basketball team (which played in the state tournament) :

. . . It teaches leadership, which is man's aim, and the ability for one to stand on his own feet. . . . In time of excitement, the captain has to keep his head and make the best possible substitution or choice. During rest periods, a captain can see how a player feels and can act accordingly while suggestions can also be offered by his teammates in order to benefit the team's chances of winning. Previously,

¹These statements were prepared "on the spur of the moment;" they were uncoached and represent honest opinions.

games had been a battle between the brains of the two coaches on the opposite teams, but that has changed from the coaches to the captains.

About the best results that this has shown is the morale of the school itself. The school backs up a team run by the captain better than it does when it is run by a coach. In the basketball season of 1927-1928, the Albany High School had more spirit than in previous years. This was the first time the games were run by the captain. The schools in the neighboring cities also showed evidence of this increase in spirit at games. . . .

Ray Knell, Buffalo, football team captain and scholastic honor student:

I think captain-controlled contests are a very good thing. A contest of this kind is much more beneficial to the players than a contest in which the coach is on the sidelines directing the play. Throughout the entire game the players are on their own initiative. When situations arise they have to decide what is best to be done instead of looking to the coach for aid. This adds a great deal of responsibility to each of the participants and makes him more dependable when he has to meet situations that arise in other lines of endeavor. Formerly, athletic contests have been chiefly exercises for the body; now they also exercise the brain as well. . . . Captain-controlled contests help a great deal to give a boy both a keen intellect and a strong, healthy body. Therefore they are better than the old type of contests in which the players could do comparatively little thinking compared to what he has to do now if he expects to win.

George F. Grader, Buffalo, football team captain:

Captain-controlled contests have been given a fair trial in all competitive sports in Buffalo for the past year. . . . It makes the captain responsible and in fact it seems to place

a responsibility on every member of the team. Each one realizes that it is his duty to help the captain and from time to time will suggest things to be done in a certain situation which shows that every member is thinking all the time. It is then up to the captain to decide what he is going to do. The captain gains a great deal by the honor which he holds. He develops his leadership, the ability to decide an issue at a crisis and carry his ideas through to a finish. . . . A coach on the sidelines is a valuable man but I think captain-controlled contests are the best for the boys themselves and incidentally for the spectator who sees exactly what the boys can accomplish with their own minds.

George W. Doran, Buffalo:

I believe that the captain should have full charge of his team during a game. I think that this develops the boys as a team and as individuals. The captain especially is improved for the reason that the responsibility of the whole game is on his shoulders. He must be a fast-thinking, clear judging, and a sportsmanlike boy. Decisions have to be made by him continually throughout the game. The players learn to think as they play and to weigh each situation carefully, instead of rushing blindly "because the coach said so." I do not mean that coaches are not necessary, for they are indispensable, but it adds to the character of every boy to put him "on his own" during a game.

Isadore Herman, Buffalo:

A game that is controlled by a captain instead of a coach has a great number of advantages to offer to the members of the team. Youth understands youth and the student captain can sometimes do more in making a winning team than can the coach. He has the respect of his teammates as it was through their choice that he was elected. Where the coach bore the burden before, now the captain and his companions

shoulder it. They realize the responsibility they have undertaken and with this as an incentive they are willing to work hard to form that combination that makes a winning team and that is cooperation. The world always needs leaders to step out and lead others to success. Where, if not on the football field can these necessary qualities be brought out that are essential for leadership?

Finally, the attitude and practices of future physical educator-coaches may be foreseen in the comments made by three students now preparing, in the Cortland Normal School for such positions. These comments indicate, besides the immediate values of the General Regulation, the thoughts and new methods its adoption suggests to those who follow it.

Fred Collins, captain of the 1929 basketball team; letter man in Lacross, football and basketball:

In my opinion, Regulation No. 1 is beneficial to both the school and the team. . . .

It places a great deal of responsibility on the captain and I believe the players on the squad take this into consideration and try to work with him. It makes the captain unselfish, just, honest, and if he has shown no partiality and done his best, he has a feeling of satisfaction whether his team wins or loses. If a captain thinks he is not playing his best and some one can do better, he immediately takes himself from the game. Here is a trait of character worthy of the possession of any man. It is the development of greater physical directors and coaches in the future. I believe it is up to the coach to determine if his captain has the qualities or if he can acquire them. It absolutely makes the game less selfish, and . . . it makes the captain better acquainted with his players and should make for complete harmony. . . .

Walter Bock, football, basketball and Lacross letter man:

In my past experience, under this plan I have felt that there are many good points to it. In the first place, the team has the feeling that it is up to them to win the game; and that the coach will be of no help to them in solving plays and ways of winning.

Secondly, it gives the captain a sense of responsibility and open-mindedness in running the team. This is in regard to strategy in "time outs," substitutions, and general floor play and sportsmanlike conduct, of not only himself but of the team as a whole. If he or any of his teammates are not working up to expectations or if unsportsmanlike conduct is being used, the coach still has a chance to "pull" the player from further participation in that contest.

Thirdly, it helps to "bring out" what is in a player. By this I mean that many players if taken from the game will either show that they were playing the game for the team glory or self-glory. Their reaction will either be that of "crabbing" or a good word to the fellow who is to replace him. . . .

As my final statement I think that Regulation Number One will furnish a much cleaner and sportsmanlike athletic program which will have a greater carry-over value.

Edwin Gale, letter man on the soccer and gymnasium teams, and president of the Athletic Council:

Educationally General Regulation Number One . . . certainly is a sound idea. A boy learns most quickly through athletics because he is naturally interested in that type of work. It is also true that we learn best through experience. These two facts combine to make it a fact that through actual experience in athletics, the boy will develop most quickly.

The regulation is a challenge to any coach in my opinion. If a coach is good enough, he can give the boys all the fundamentals of the game, show them how they may best use them and then let them go ahead and try it themselves with full responsibility resting on them to see what they have acquired. The captain should be the boy who has had the greater experience and at the same time has shown himself to be most capable of responsibility.

The theory is sound. We now have the opportunity to develop in actual practice the guiding principles and rules which shall give the most good to the boys. I believe in one modification now, namely: a change in the system of electing captains. This of course is not really a criticism of the regulation but at the same time is a result of the regulation. I think that each eligible man shall be given a chance to act as the leader and the captain elected at the end of the season from those men who have shown their worth.

CHAPTER IV

Criticism and Rejoinder

The strength and integrity of any principle or law may be measured by its capacity to withstand the assaults of uninformed critics and the practical tests of experimenters. Thus the law of gravitation stands up so well both in theory and in practice that if any person less than an Einstein attempts its modification we smile covertly behind our hand, and if the results of a laboratory test do not agree with the facts, it is assumed that the fault rests with the technique of the experimenter. Similarly, theory and practice should agree in the case of any educational principle, such as that of pupil freedom with responsibility as a method of character development. If the theory be sound every properly conducted experiment should substantiate it, and every unanticipated result of its application should call attention to faulty experimental technique.

Before taking up the more common criticisms of the General Regulation two particularly distressing forms of response must be dealt with. One of these is the *laissez faire* response which grants the validity of the hypothesis but either is not ready to initiate the practice or denies that any practice can be devised which will "work." The "watchful waiting" attitude can

well be defended. It is born of a temperate disposition and merely waits for others to establish the best practice before undertaking a new program. The "doubting Thomas" attitude, however, is less to be admired, for to grant the theory while denying the possibility of practical success is to deny the capacity of human nature for improvement. The sufficient answer to both attitudes consists of an overwhelming number of successful experiments; and in the case of the General Regulation these are easily available.

A second dangerous response is that of the person who, after granting the validity of the theory, says he will "give *it* a trial." Of course what he really does is to give *himself* a trial, for any experimental failure with a sound principle or proven law must be the failure of the experimenter.

1. Almost the first criticism advanced against player responsibility in games and sports is that schoolboys cannot be trusted to play their own games. If this were true it would constitute a most serious criticism, not of the General Regulation but of an entire educational structure. A century ago our present pupils' forefathers were sailing—and captaining—ships which circumnavigated the globe, and performing these feats at schoolboy ages.¹ That today their children's chil-

¹See S. E. Morrison, *The Maritime History of Massachusetts*.

dren are inherently incapable of managing their own games is absurd. What they lack, if anything, is opportunity to experiment and learn.

But the argument has no truth in it, for hundreds of elementary and secondary school teams in New York have played thousands of games under the General Regulation within the past year, and on every convenient back lot and city street Youth may be seen playing its own games. It would be better if both groups had guidance, not in playing, but in playing *fairly*; but this guidance need not involve choice of substitutes, lectures on strategy, or definite commands to do this or that during the progress of the game.

Nor can the experiences and examples of foreigners be ignored in this connection. Surely if English boys can be trusted to play their own games American boys can also. The following report is significant:¹

As soon as the team takes the field, the captain is solely responsible for its strategy and tactics during the game. No coach interferes in any way. The fact that substitution of players is not permitted in a Rugby game eliminates entirely the carrying of hints or directions for conducting the fifteen from the sidelines to the field, and, even if such interference were possible, it is doubtful if captains would brook it. In cricket all coaching during a game is by the captain on signal from the bowler (the "pitcher"). In short, once on the field, the play of a team is governed only by its captain. The result is, of course, some decrease in the precision of play, but a great increase in the captain's responsibility. Thus upon the captain and upon no one else, rests the burden of leadership

¹From *Bulletin 18* of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, "Games and Sports in British Schools and Universities" prepared by Dr. Howard J. Savage.

not only in matches but in the preparation for all contests, of whatever importance.

2. A serious criticism offered to returning to players themselves the privilege of playing their own games is that "captains cannot stand the responsibility." Of course the "responsibility" implied is that of "winning the game." This is so vicious a point of view that one phase of it—"victory"—will be considered in another chapter. There are several pertinent rejoinders to this criticism, however, the most obvious of which is that many captains *do* bear the responsibility and succeed very well, indeed.

For example, in March 1928 all basketball captains met the responsibilities of leading their teams in a State Championship Tournament, and without apparent injury. During the 1928 football season some scores of captains have shouldered the new responsibility for the first time, and without serious casualties. Moreover just as many teams will win and just as many will lose under the new arrangement as under the old, and, since human nature is at work, if their teams "lose" the contest townspeople will blame a local high school boy less than they formerly censured a paid coach. They must also blame the coach less than formerly, and so the General Regulation tends to eliminate ill feeling and retribution and produces more sympathy in a world which, happily, desires this virtue to prevail.

The writer has known captains who have succumbed to their responsibilities under the old arrangement;

doubtless some will fail under the new. But as a point against pupil freedom with responsibility in sports the argument that pupils cannot shoulder the responsibility is misplaced. It is a point against the game itself, or against some condition attached to the game, such as the desire for victory or the need of satisfying the collective ego of great crowds of students and alumni. If captains cannot bear the responsibility of leading their own teams it is high time to do something about the game itself. The present situation in intercollegiate athletics especially is analogous to that which would exist in a flying school if the instructors were not allowed to permit their *most advanced* students to do solo flying "because the responsibility is too great."

3. Another common criticism is that "the players cannot see the game as a whole. They are too close to it and need a strategist on the bench to guide them." This criticism is based on the assumption that the game is being played for the spectators rather than for the players. To the extent that educational values should be sacrificed to the amusement of the crowd, it is valid. But if it is the duty of school teams to entertain, it were better to employ professionals who would be more skillful than students, and save the students' time for self-improvement.

Many of the most competent coaches and sportsmen believe that a capable field general will function better than any bench captain if given *enough* freedom and responsibility. Those who would *use* schoolboys for

adult amusement may have their point if they will grant that in gaining it they do so at the expense of the welfare of the boys themselves.

4. "It is not safe for the physical welfare of players to put them under the control of a schoolboy on the playing field," is a frequent criticism which is usually given in ignorance of the provision that the coach may, at any time and for any reason, remove any player from the game, for under the General Regulation *one of the chief duties of coaches is the protection of health*. If it be argued that coaches will not use their prerogative as they should, three answers are available. First, they have not in the past been distinguished for great eagerness to protect health above all else; second, the General Regulation makes it easier for coaches to protect health than does the old situation; and third, where coaches sincerely accept and intelligently follow the General Regulation they *do* give more thought and attention to physical welfare than ever before.

The criticism is not without some foundation for if a coach removes a player he cannot be returned to the same contest; and it is often possible that the coach may hesitate to take a player out who ought to leave the game, because of this prohibition. This criticism reveals at least two present weaknesses in practice—and some opportunities, which will be indicated hereafter.

No one can safely assert that any player so badly hurt, or in such a dangerous condition physically that the coach (or trainer or physician) feels impelled to

remove him, should properly return to the same contest. It were much better both for the player and for the team if a substitute played the remainder of the game. By this means everyone is benefitted. The player's health is safeguarded. A substitute has a chance to play. The team is strengthened, usually, and the coach is relieved by the rule of any temptation to risk further injury to the player by sending him back to finish the game.

If the injured player himself or his captain takes the initiative in making the substitution the player may return to the game. The coach only acts when the player or captain has been negligent in his duty, assuming that the injury was slight—providing a penalty for this negligence—another lesson which may be taught under the new adjustment which could not be instilled under the old order.

It may properly be held that, under the new rule, the coach will hesitate to remove a player as soon as he ought. This is a weakness, but the gains far outweigh the losses; and, moreover, the argument assumes that the coach is more interested in winning than he is in his players' health. A coach cannot be negligent, though, without his defection becoming apparent. It is the superintendent of schools' duty to assure coaches that they are employed primarily for other purposes than winning.

Moreover, to give a captain the privilege of returning to the game a player whom the coach has seen fit to remove provides the captain with power to nullify

the veto of his coach, a most undesirable arrangement. The coach may wish to discipline a player for moral illness—poor sportsmanship, for example. It should never be possible for a captain to change this last veto of the coach, who is amply protected from a captain's counter-action by the double provision that the coach may remove any player at any time for any reason *and* that no player so removed may return to the same contest.

5. Many sincere critics hesitate to give captains "so much power" fearing that it will be misused. This type of criticism comes often from the most able educators. Since it arises out of a misunderstanding of the working of the General Regulation and since it offers an opportunity to indicate two or three practices in athletics which should be altered if they are to contribute most to pupil growth, it is desirable to pause here to examine the criticisms and point out the remedies.

"Captains will not put in substitutes. I want to have as many men as possible playing and this new adjustment prevents it," is a typical criticism of the General Regulation.

Again several answers are possible. The first is that captains *do* put in substitutes. During the last State basketball championship tournament captains made more substitutions than had coaches during previous years in similar tournaments. During a football game between Elmira and Binghamton recently, between two

well-matched teams where substitutions are seldom made by coaches, one captain made seven, and the other made nine changes in his lineup.

Moreover the coach may, if necessary, instruct the captain to make substitutions. Then if the captain does not perform his duty the coach may remove *him*. It is a splendid quality to acquire—that of thinking of the substitutes and “giving them their chance”—a lesson every captain should learn, and one which may be learned most effectively under the General Regulation.¹

Finally, the coach may, at any time during the game, remove as many players as he desires, thereby making it necessary for the captain to name substitutes. Nor will this expedient unduly handicap the team since even coaches and superintendents usually are thinking of the “last few minutes” when they refer to “giving the substitutes a chance,” and players so removed, by whatever authority, cannot return to the game.

The ultimate remedy lies in a totally different direction. The only proper adjustment is to provide more games for all, so that practically all substitutes may play a full game rather than stand by to fill in. This is not only more democratic and hygienic, it is more educational as well. Nothing else galls a substitute like sitting on a bench during a game, and probably nothing else is more harmful to his self-respect and

¹The facetious or insincere critic often halts the argument here to observe that it is easy to defeat the General Regulation by providing the captain with a complete set of instructions before the game begins. Doubtless this is so; it is not an argument against the Regulation, however, but against unscrupulous coaches. Moreover coaches who try this expedient soon give it up as impractical.

confidence. Instead of an army of substitutes, coaches who are sincere educators will reserve as few substitutes as possible for each game. In football five substitutes may be necessary; certainly seven will meet all ordinary needs. In basketball three should suffice, and in baseball not more than three or four. The remainder of the squad should be playing their own game either before the first team plays, or at the same time, but in another town or on another field, or between the halves of the first team game (engaging the second team of the opponents), or after the first team game has ended.

6. A second misuse of power by captains may be that of favoring their friends and ignoring the rights of the players.

The tacit assumption behind this criticism is that the most powerful and skillful players, by virtue of their strength and skill alone, acquire the "right" to play on the school team. The chief defense for this assumption is that victory is the chief object of the game, and that those players who best serve "victory" should enjoy superior rights to places on the team. But, as will be shown later, the god of "victory" as usually conceived, is a wholly false god, whose worship almost inevitably leads its devotees into error.

On the other hand, the schoolboy playfield provides a training ground for democratic citizenship which can scarcely be equaled anywhere else in school life. It is here that interests are deepest and activities most intense: therefore learning situations may be most fruit-

ful if learning situations be allowed to develop. What better lesson in democratic government—the power and importance of the ballot, and the need for and results of cooperation—may be given than by having a football squad elect a captain and then requiring the squad to abide by the rule of the majority and support the democratically chosen leader? If he is a poor leader the majority suffers most, and learns the lesson. If he were chosen because of a delightful personality and if the players really wanted a dominating officer to drive them they may, in sport, and before adult life is reached (if the coach is an educator and seizes his opportunities) learn to distinguish between those qualities in candidates which should be supported for any particular office and those which make for pleasant companionship.

Again, if the captain plays favorites not only he but the entire squad and its supporters will learn, in the disappointments attending the games, the folly of patronage long before they are tempted, in adult politics, to make similar mistakes. How better could an entire student body be taught the evils of selfish or snobbish considerations, such as fraternity obligations, than by suffering, with their team, humiliating experience because of the captain's weakness? Educators will welcome the new adjustment because its educational potentialities are so overwhelming. But perhaps some persons will object that "defeat" is too great a price to pay for this lesson. . . .

Other critics will point out that captains are not

chosen democratically and therefore the lesson cannot be learned. "Sports captains," they rightly observe, "are chosen by team members after the season is ended. At a banquet or at the photographer's they choose one of their number to lead next year's squad, though more than half of them will never serve under the new captain, who will literally be foisted upon a new squad nine-tenths of whom had no voice in his election."

This observation is entirely correct, but it only reveals another opportunity for changing a harmful tradition into an educative program. The traditional and highly autocratic practice of electing captains at the end of sports seasons should be abandoned and "election by the squads led" should be substituted. Teams may well go captain-less for the first week or two of practice, the coach using this period to give every eligible player a chance to show his powers of leadership, after which the squad may elect its own captain with a background of observation to direct its choice. That this practice will result in the selection of more capable captains has been demonstrated wherever it is used. That it provides the captain himself with greater sanction for his prerogatives and better cooperation from his followers is obvious. That it gives players an extraordinarily potent lesson in democratic government must be an irresistible point in its favor; and that it is a new adjustment the necessity of whose introduction into sports practice is a direct consequence of the adoption of the General Regulation has already been demonstrated in Buffalo, Albany and elsewhere.

Three more points against the General Regulation must be recognized. These are hardly to be classed as legitimate "arguments," but since they are voiced so often they must be met here.

7. Many coaches (and their supporters), deny that they, personally, are of the interfering sort and claim, therefore, that the rule is not needed to curb their activities. "Everyone agrees that *our* coach does not 'use his boys as pawns'—then why saddle him with this new restriction?" is a typical query of a popular coach's players and friends.

"To protect him from his unscrupulous opponents" should be an adequate reply. Surely the coach who does not control the game from the sidelines will not be handicapped by a rule which prohibits other coaches from doing something he scorns to do. On the contrary, such a rule, if followed, must be his greatest support, for it protects his players on the field from bearing the burden of opposing the combination of a playing team on the field plus a directing head on the sidelines. This situation may be compared to that provided by the law prohibiting the carrying of concealed firearms. The honest citizen does not object, even though the law prohibits him from thus protecting himself against robbers. Nor does he interpret this law as a reflection on his personal integrity, but

welcomes it as a protective measure for the great majority, the benefits of which will far outweigh the occasional losses which must result.

8. The most disturbing argument advanced against the General Regulation is that honest coaches will be prevented from retaliating against dishonest coaches who continue to control their teams by means of signals, either directly to the captain, or indirectly, through an intermediary. This "argument" cannot be ignored either, for evidence which cannot be questioned, though it is of too indefinite a character for positive action, is available to indicate that certain coaches have already taken advantage of the new rule.

The seriousness of this situation can hardly be overestimated, for such unfair actions by coaches can occur only with the full consent and connivance of the captain and his teammates, who are thus taught the most despicable forms of dishonesty and injustice to their opponents by the man who is responsible for teaching them, first of all, the opposite qualities.

The writer grants that the argument "coaches cannot be trusted; if the General Regulation is put into effect boys will be taught unfair play even more than before" is, if true, unanswerable. Yet it is not an argument against the General Regulation but against coaches and coaching as a profession. If pupil freedom and responsibility are educationally desirable, it were better to abolish coaching than to abandon the only proper reason for its existence in a school program: the development of pupil character. If indi-

vidual coaches cannot be trusted they should be exposed and drummed out of the profession by the coaches themselves. It is false loyalty of the most dangerous brand which protects the thief within the group "because I won't be a tale bearer." The fact that the very characters of players are being destroyed by coaches who will not abide by the rules only renders summary action by educators more necessary than ever.¹

The danger suggested above is probably not very great, however. Every new adjustment must pass through a period of misunderstanding, careless administration, and some moral indecision and error. Twenty, and even ten years ago when eligibility rules were first formulated they were very commonly broken or ignored by otherwise upright men. Today such derelictions are the exception rather than the rule.

Dishonest coaches must be weeded out. But it will be discovered that they are very few in number.

9. A final criticism of the move to return to players the rights to their own games is that it is a step towards abolishing the coach and returning schoolboy contests to the low sporting levels from which they have been raised—by coaches.

Nothing could be further from the truth. The General Regulation renders the work of sports teachers

¹It will occur to the reader that this suggestion may result in great confusion and unlimited accusations of dishonesty. The writer has enough faith in coaches as gentlemen to discount this danger; and besides, how can any educator shrink from the task of keeping his house clean because of the work and worry involved?

and coaches more difficult but more vital than ever before. Under the new plan boys must be taught very much more than under the old order; and the coach, therefore, must be more of a teacher, rather than less. If he teaches so well that he can trust his pupils to play while he is absent on other duties (as refereeing other games—a program now being developed in Rochester) so much the more to his credit and his pupils' benefit. There is no suggestion that conditions be made as they were before trained coaches entered the scholastic field.

There is, however, a very definite plan to effect the removal of those coaches who are incompetent teachers—who either do not understand the psychology of teaching or are less concerned for the moral development of pupils than for the humiliation of opponents. Among these must be numbered all coaches who value technical playing skill above physical, mental or social development, and also those coaches whose greatest ambition is for "victory." These men are usurping places of great responsibility which worthier teachers should fill.

The time has long since passed when a coach can declaim over the virtues of games and sports as character-developing institutions, as if they functioned automatically to purge the soul of weak and selfish

impulses. The fact is that athletics provides a two-edged sword, which may develop courage, initiative and cooperation but which may just as easily (and in modern life perhaps more easily than not) develop fear, impotence, and selfishness. Again is the situation so distressing as to tempt the cartoonist. Those who saw the November 10, 1927 issue of *Life* remember the picture of a football coach exhorting his team before the game, with the following lines printed underneath: "*Football Coach (to players): 'Remember that football develops individuality, initiative and leadership. Now get in there and do exactly as I tell you.'*"

Today sports occupy a larger place in the public eye than at any time in the history of the world, except possibly in Rome during the decline of classical culture. During the fall of 1928 over ~~thirty~~^{ten} million persons attended the collegiate football contests alone, to say nothing of those millions who heard the radio reports and read the Sunday sports editions of the metropolitan newspapers.

Recently an analysis of the newsprint published in New York City on a typical day¹ revealed the fact that two subjects of human interest stood head and shoulders above all others. These were "fashions" to which were devoted over 5000 columns (including advertisements as the chief source of supply) and sports, which required 2500 columns (of which very few columns were advertisements). This tremendous pre-

¹Compiled for and reported by Dr. Henry Fairfield Osborn.

occupation with sports which is today being manifested in the United States carries with it a great trust which cannot be ignored by those responsible for the trends it takes any more than a storm at sea can be ignored by ship captains. Either sports will aid society to rise to new levels of sportsmanship and culture or they may contribute their share to dragging society down to the brutal levels of barbarism, providing "nerve excitement"¹ for a dying civilization. . . .

Manifestly a greater day has dawned for those who guide the destinies of sports; but these persons in present-day society must meet the challenge of new ideals as well as new opportunities. For coaches to cast aside the principle of player responsibility, or refuse to apply it fully in the activities for which they are responsible, assuredly will prove them to be unworthy of their own trust. It is the privilege and opportunity of the present incumbents in coaching positions to determine the most effective methods of applying the principle to each sport. Doubtless there are both good and better as well as bad methods, but no man may, with justice to himself or to his pupils, stand aside waiting for "someone else" to discover and perfect the best methods of procedure. Rather should coaches, like automobile manufacturers, instead of denying the value and obstructing the introduction of new adjustments, such as self-starters and four wheel brakes or player-responsibility, *rival each other in*

¹ See Oswald Spengler, *The Decline of the West*, Volume I.

adopting and perfecting these improvements. In business and industry the ultra-conservatives and the obstructionists would pay for their procrastination or obstruction with their economic lives. In education the winds do not blow so hard; therefore the obligation of the protected profession is even greater to discover the truth, perfect the practice and incorporate it at the earliest moment in the structure of educational procedure. In all great schools of education the successors of the present coaching fraternity will be taught the educational principle of pupil freedom with responsibility and will be given both determination and technical skill to put it in successful practice. The present situation provides a laboratory crucible in which, not the principle of player-responsibility, but the character and competence of athletic coaches may be subjected to the revealing flame of a searching test.¹

¹It is not necessary that coaches or others pass restricting rules. Rather should coaches *agree among themselves* to give captains the normal prerogatives of their offices. Such actions would be tremendously effective in establishing coaches as educators, giving them an academic standing the present lack of which many of them feel very keenly. Moreover such an action would place coaches, almost overnight, in the position of those who lead in the adoption of the best educational methods. The present situation provides an *opportunity* which coaches can well afford to grasp at once. The action taken by a group of New York State coaches, as reported on page 11 provides a good example of agreement between coaches.

CHAPTER V

History

If a principle can be said to have a history, probably that of player responsibility in athletics was born when Coach T. A. D. Jones of Yale offered, in a college football coach's meeting, to go into the stands during game-time if the coaches of opposing teams would follow his example. It is on record that Coach Jones' plea for more player control was rejected, but since this incident occurred individual coaches here and there have experimented with player-control, with varying degrees of success; one or two leagues have adopted rules relegating the coach to the bleachers during game-time;¹ and the *Yale Alumni Weekly* conducted, during the fall of 1927, an editorial campaign against coach-directed games.

The first concerted action in New York State occurred when the school administrators in Albany, Troy, Schenectady and other nearby cities and villages² took the step reported on the opening page of this volume. This action was soon followed by the Buffalo, Rochester and Syracuse adoptions as already recorded.

On October 1, 1927 the Eastern New York Athletic

¹ Notably the Detroit Public High Schools and the Mystic Valley League composed of a few private schools in Eastern Massachusetts. Action was taken in 1927.

² The list includes the following cities and villages: Albany, Amsterdam, Ballston Spa, Cohoes, Hoosick Falls, Hudson, Hudson Falls, Johnstown, Mechanicville, Saratoga Springs, Schenectady, Troy, Watervliet.

League comprising the largest athletic league in the State voted to prohibit interference in any league contests by coaches or any other non-players, and later in the fall the Adirondack League, the Chautauqua League and several leagues near Rochester¹ took similar steps. Thus, by the beginning of the basketball season the State was well spotted with teams operating under the new adjustment.

These gains did not come without determined and sometimes almost bitter opposition. Everywhere coaches were in arms against what they chose to construe either as undeserved reflections on their professional competency as educators, or as improper restrictions on their legitimate activities as coaches. In the Albany district several meetings between coaches and state officials were necessary before any measure of harmony prevailed. In Rochester the coaches were openly critical and even secured, temporarily, the support of their school principals in opposing the new order. In Syracuse certain newspaper sports writers and others attempted to break down the determination of the superintendent of schools and his director of physical education to stand by a rule which had come to be called by various titles. In Buffalo, however, and only to a slightly lesser extent in other cities, the local situations were always well in hand.

As heretofore stated, probably the most important

¹These leagues were: Rochester City, ~~Allegheny County~~; Finger Lakes, Livingston County, Monroe County, ~~Steuben County~~, Wayne County, Wyoming County.

action taken during 1927 occurred in October when the New York State Public High School Athletic Association, through its central governing body, adopted the General Regulation, making it mandatory in all sectional and state tournaments. By this action the best teams in every section of the state were guaranteed opportunities to play their own games uncontrolled by adults in the critical pre-championship contests, and finally the entire state was vouchsafed an example, in the state basketball tournament at Troy, of eight teams playing according to the General Regulation under the most difficult playing responsibilities to which they could be subjected. The uniform success which attended the operation of these games provided incontrovertible proof of the practicability as well as the theoretical desirability of the new-old adjustment.

The situation which was created by the General Regulation is shown in the first map pictured herewith.

Early in 1928, the Cortland Normal School adopted the General Regulation for all contests played by its students. As the Cortland Normal School graduates annually, in addition to a large group of classroom teachers, some eighty-odd physical directors, the effect of its example must eventually be profound. The Cortland officials also secured the cooperation of several other normal schools, so that many inter-normal school contests were played under the General Regulation, thus providing many hundreds of prospective teachers throughout the State with an ideal example of pupil leadership in athletics. At about the same

time that the Cortland Normal School adopted the new rule it was accepted by the Ithaca School of Physical Education, whose students thereafter have played under its provisions; and later in the year the department of physical education in Teachers College, Columbia University, the Savage School of Physical Education in New York City, and the Newark, New Jersey, Normal School of Physical Education accepted the principle of pupil freedom with responsibility in athletics and agreed to teach it in their classes.

During the academic year 1927-1928 five notable events aided the development of the principle of non-interference by non-players in schoolboy contests.

The first of these was the formal endorsement among its resolutions of the State Department physical education program by the New York State Council of Superintendents. Of course the principle of pupil responsibility was specifically included in the State Department program.

The second event was a formal endorsement of the General Regulation by the presidents of the seven District Hygiene and Physical Education Associations of the State, action being taken at the annual House of Delegates meeting in Troy.

During the annual Associated Academic Principals' meetings at Syracuse on December 28, 1927, these

school administrators were asked to answer several questions, among which were the following:

1. (a) The school should employ a technique which will turn self-guidance and responsibility over to pupils as fully as possible and as rapidly as possible.

5. (a) The older the pupil the more freedom he should have to direct his own games.

(b) This policy should be followed in interschool sports as well as in intramural sports.

The weighted replies showed an overwhelming endorsement of the principle on which the General Regulation is based, being about 24 to 1 in the case of the first question and 48 to 1 and 20 to 1 respectively in the cases of the last two. This individual vote was followed by formal endorsement of the program in the resolutions adopted by the Associated Academic Principals:

The fourth action was the unanimous endorsement of the principle (and a pledge to introduce at the earliest moment the practice of returning to players the responsibility for playing their own contests) by the presidents of the two State Teachers Colleges (at Albany and Buffalo) and by the principals of the nine normal schools. This action came too late materially to affect the situation in the teacher training institutions until the fall of 1928.

Perhaps the most significant declaration was the action taken by the superintendents, principals, physical directors and coaches in the Albany district, at a meeting held on June 7, 1928, when the physical directors

and coaches, meeting in one room approved the General Regulation in principle and formally agreed to abide by it in practice, while their administrators, meeting in another room, unanimously passed the following resolution :

We pledge our support to the principle embraced in "General Regulation No. 1" (which gives to players themselves control over their own contests during game time) and agree to direct the activities of the physical education departments in our respective schools to carry out this regulation in letter and in spirit; further, that school administrators hold themselves responsible for the enforcement of the principle in their local communities; further, that the Regulation be applied to ALL interschool and intraschool athletic contests, whether or not it is adhered to by opponents; further, that any deviation from carrying out the letter of this Regulation shall be considered educational malpractice; and further, that it shall be considered unprofessional to continue coaching athletics in these schools without adhering to the principle involved in said Regulation.

The effect of this action was to establish the General Regulation as a fundamental educational adjustment the neglect of which would constitute a definite menace to the educational welfare of the children of the Capital District, and the breaking of which would constitute sufficient cause for the dismissal from service of any offending official, regardless of tenure or other considerations.

The significance of this resolution by the Capital District school administrators can hardly be overestimated, for it came only after the new adjustment had

had a year's trial, it was passed by men recognized as educational leaders throughout the State—some of whom themselves had been noted college athletes—and was stated in the most unequivocal terms.

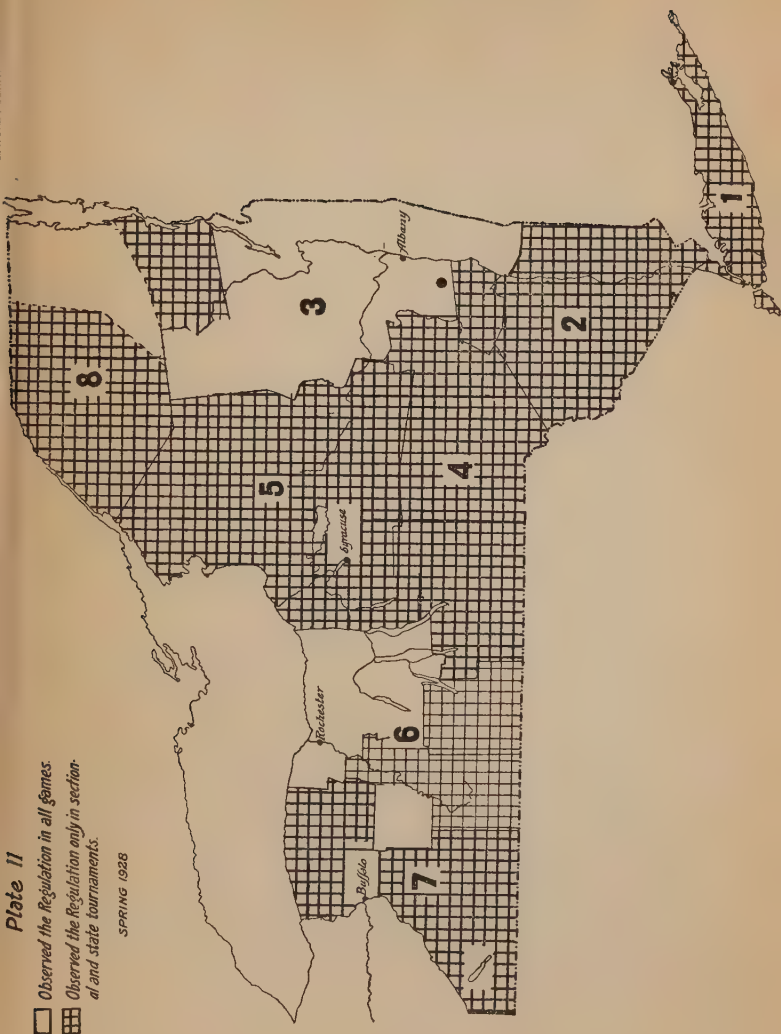
The situation which existed in New York in June 1928 is shown on Map II.

On the other hand, in point of numbers reverses were more numerous than successes. Everywhere the new adjustment was discussed, and league after league voted it down or refused to consider its adoption, while coaches very generally were vehement in opposition. Nor are they to be blamed severely for this attitude. To them the new rule was a prohibition (in reality, of course, it was merely a *shifting* of privilege and responsibility), and a direct slap which was undeserved because they had done much to elevate good sportsmanship in their own communities.

"Besides, why shouldn't coaches run the game," they asked, pointing out that they were held responsible for the fortunes of their teams. "College coaches do it. . . ."

As if to shame the college and universities whose team captains are not trusted to guide their own teams ¹ the principals of the Buffalo Grammar School League, comprising 99 teams, many of which have adult coaches, adopted the General Regulation for their games; and the junior high school team captains of Rochester were given the same privileges as are en-

¹ It is generally understood that Harvard provides a notable exception to this statement.



joyed by their older brothers in sport in the upper grades in Rochester.

During the fall of 1928 many new sections of the State endorsed the principle of pupil responsibility in interschool athletics and adopted one or more of the essential provisions of the General Regulation. Among these the most notable were the Central New York League composed of 16 schools, the Hudson River League with 6 schools, the Rockland County League with 8 schools, the North and South Shore Leagues of Long Island with 20 schools.

Among these the most significant action came from the Long Island district where the coaches and superintendents, after steadily refusing to adopt the new adjustment during 1927-1928, welcomed it unanimously and without reservations in 1928; and from western New York where the school administrators at Batavia and elsewhere secured consideration and finally acceptance of the Regulation through the example of promises to abide by it regardless of the actions taken by opponents.

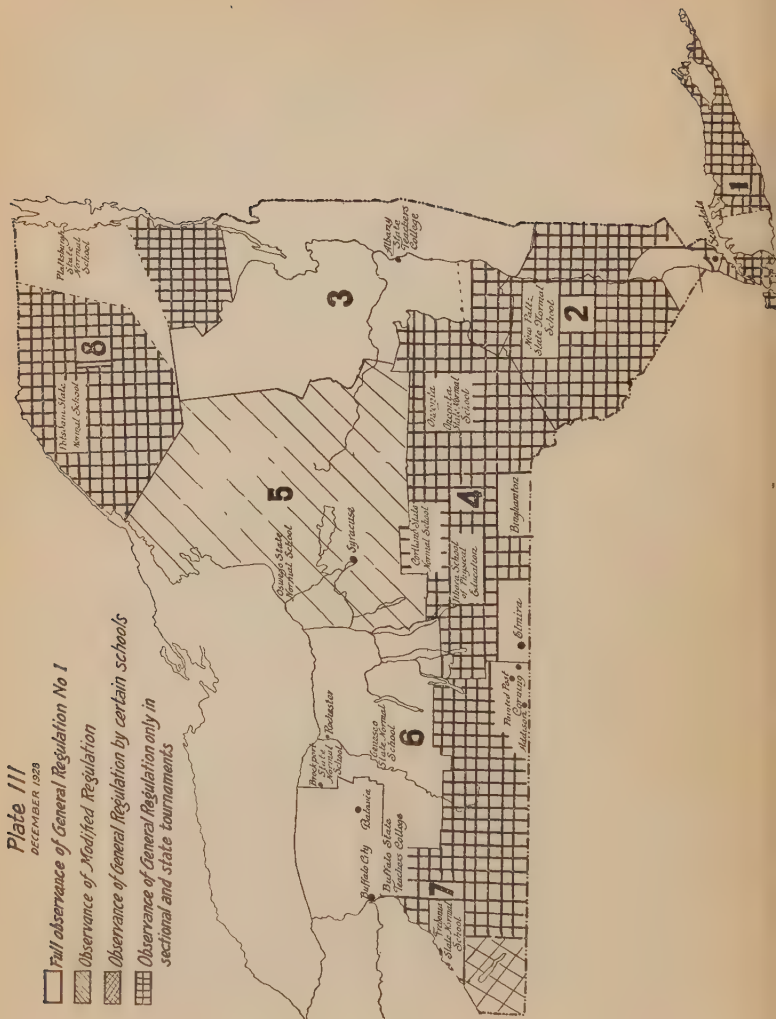
Two especially interesting situations developed in the Southern Tier Counties. The superintendents in Binghamton and Elmira, after waiting a year for league action, announced that thereafter their teams would abide by the General Regulation regardless of

the policies followed by their opponents, thus taking the strongest possible stand for pupil control and responsibility; while in Corning, Addison and Painted Post the physical director-coaches determined to "give the game back to the players" in spite of the refusal of their associates in nearby villages to agree with them, and even in spite of threats that their games might be forfeited if they (the coaches at Corning, etc.) refused to engage in the interfering activities so tenaciously insisted on by coaches of the old school.

The map shown on page 64 indicates the present status of the principle of returning to the players themselves the privileges and responsibilities which are properly theirs in athletic contests.

As history performs the double function of tracing the past and predicting at least the immediate future, it should be possible to infer what may occur in New York State during the coming year. The historian is justified (because all those who have accepted the General Regulation continue to use it; and because former opponents are being won over) in predicting that a fourth map might next year be drawn which would show the state nearly "all white," with practically every city and village of consequence conforming to the new adjustment in an endeavor to extend, in the field of games and sports, a fundamental educational principle.

And so the example of the lower schools challenges the universities to return once more to college and university men at least the same privileges now enjoyed



High Schools Observing the Principle of Player— Responsibility in Games and Sports*

December, 1928

SECTION 1

Nassau County Leagues

Baldwin
Farmingdale
Freeport
Glen Cove
Great Neck
Hempstead
Hicksville
Lawrence
Long Beach
Lynbrook
Malverne
Manhasset
Mineola
Ocean Side
Oyster Bay
Port Washington
Rockville Center
Roslyn
Sea Cliff
Valley Stream
Westbury
Woodmere

SECTION 2

Lower Hudson Valley League

Buchanan
Croton-on-Hudson
North Tarrytown
Ossining
Peekskill
Scarsdale
Tarrytown

Rockland County League
Congers
Haverstraw
Nyack

Pearl River
Piermont
Spring Valley
Suffern
Tomkins Cove

SECTION 3

Eastern New York Public H. S. Athletic League

Albany
Amsterdam
Ballston Spa
Cambridge
Canajoharie
Chatham
Cohoes
Draper School, Schenectady
Fort Edward
Glens Falls
Gloversville
Granville
Hoosick Falls
Hudson
Hudson Falls
Johnstown
Lansingburg
Mechanicville
Rensselaer
Rotterdam Junction
Saratoga Springs
Schenectady
Schuylerville
Scotia
Stillwater
Troy
Waterford
Watervliet
Whitehall

SECTION 4

Binghamton
Elmira
Oneonta

SECTION 5

Syracuse City League

Blodgett Vocational H. S.
Central High School
Eastwood High School
North High School
William Nottingham H. S.
Onondaga Valley H. S.

Black River Valley League

Boonville
Holland Patent
Lowville
Lyons Falls
Old Forge
Port Leyden

Central New York League

Dolgeville
Frankfort
Fulton
Hamilton
Herkimer
Ilion
Little Falls
Mohawk
New Hartford
Oneida
Oswego
Rome
Sherrill
Utica
Watertown
Whitesboro

*Prepared by E. A. Bauer, Supervisor of Physical Education, New York State Education Department.

SECTION 6**Rochester City League**

Charlotte High School
 East High School
 John Marshall High School
 Monroe High School
 Shop School
 West High School

Finger Lakes League

Canandaigua
 Clifton Springs
 Geneva
 Penn Yan
 Phelps
 Seneca Falls
 Shortsville
 Victor
 Waterloo

Allegany County League

Alfred
 Almond
 Andover
 Angelica
 Belmont
 Bolivar
 Cuba
 Fillmore
 Friendship
 Richburg
 Rushford
 Wellsville
 Whitesville

Livingston County

Caledonia
 Dansville
 Geneseo
 Greigsville
 Groveland
 Mount Morris
 Nunda

Monroe County

East Rochester
 Fairport
 Irondequoit

Ontario
 Pittsford
 Spencerport
 Webster

Steuben County

Addison
 Corning Free Academy
 Corning Northside H. S.
 Painted Post

Wayne County

Clyde
 Lyons
 Macedon
 Marion
 Newark
 North Rose
 Palmyra
 Savannah
 Sodus
 Williamson

Wyoming County

Arcade
 Attica
 Bliss
 Castile
 Perry
 Pike
 Silver Springs
 Warsaw
 Wyoming

Lockport
 Niagara Falls
 North Tonawanda
 Tonawanda

Chautauqua County

Bemus Point
 Cassadaga
 Celoron
 Cherry Creek
 Chautauqua
 Clymer
 Ellington
 Frewsburg
 Lakewood
 Sherman
 Sinclairville

SECTION 8**Adirondack League**

Lake Placid
 Plattsburgh
 Saranac Lake
 Tupper Lake

**New York State Teachers
Colleges**

Albany
 Buffalo

**New York State Normal
Schools**

Brockport
 Cortland
 Fredonia
 Geneseo
 New Paltz
 Oneonta
 Oswego
 Plattsburg
 Potsdam

SECTION 7**Buffalo City**

Bennett High School
 East High School
 Hutchinson High School
 Fosdick-Masten H. S.
 Lafayette High School
 South Park High School
 Technical High School

Western New York League

Batavia
 Kenmore

Also

Ithaca School of Physical
 Education

by their younger brothers in high schools. That it is possible for players adequately to direct their own games has been amply demonstrated in both secondary, intermediate and primary schools. There can be no question on this score; and soon players from high schools (where player responsibility has become not only a realizable ideal but common practice) will be "going to college," where their ideals may be strengthened or shattered. The position of supreme responsibility for the progress of education in America now enjoyed by our institutions of higher learning should lead college and university officials gladly to change their own practices; for, as the example set by the college coaches has in the past been the chief stumbling block in the way of those who have sought to establish the new program, so may their change in practice bring about the more rapid return throughout the United States of player freedom with responsibility in games and sports.

PART II

The Amateur Spirit—Points of View

The Amateur Spirit—Points of View

CHAPTER VI

Fair Play

The chief psychological difference between man and the lower animals is that man thinks, or at least has the capacity for consciously recalling past experiences and using these memories as guides to present and future action. The chief difference between man and the gentlemen is that while both can think, the man usually thinks of and plans for himself first or exclusively, while the gentleman thinks of and plans for "the other fellow" first, or at least sympathetically considers the other fellow's hopes and welfare in planning his own actions. The good sportsman is first of all a gentleman, but he is more. He is a gentleman who by impulse and experience is able and accustomed to appreciate and practice fair play in sports.

Fair play includes at least three definite qualities, honesty, courtesy and justice, of which the most obvious is honesty while perhaps the most difficult to appreciate and practice is justice. Other desirable human qualities may or may not contribute to fair play. Cooperation is not absolutely essential to fair

play, except insofar as it is a necessary corollary to courtesy. Certainly initiative is not a part of fair play, nor are courage and perseverance. Sympathy is necessary for the highest type of courtesy, and doubtless loyalty overlaps honesty, but it is entirely possible to *play fairly* without engaging in the noblest expressions of these virtues.

Honesty, which *is* essential to fair play, consists in admitting and practicing the truth on every occasion and at every point. Abiding by the regulations governing the game, meeting the spirit as well as the letter of eligibility rules, and admitting the contentions of opponents when they are known to be correct, are obvious examples of fair play which may properly be classified in the category of "honest" practices.

Courtesy also is an essential characteristic of fair play. No actor in games and sports plays fairly who fails to seize every opportunity for courteous actions both on the playing field and off; and if he is a sincere and well-trained sportsman he sees and seizes many opportunities for exchanges of courtesy which must escape even the gentleman who lacks his sports training and perceptions.

Perhaps golf provides the best example of courtesy in sport. On every tee the loser of the last hole says to his opponent, "Your honor!" Each helps the other to find lost balls, and down the fairway the man farthest back is waited for and encouraged by his compatriot in sport. On the green every thought is for the comfort of the opponent who is in the act of play-

ing his ball. No words are spoken, no movements made, no one permits even his shadow to interfere with the player's thoughts and actions.

Golf is a supremely social game because so many opportunities for expressions of the social graces present themselves, but other sports are only slightly less social. Sport without courtesy would cease to be sport and become forthwith a species of warfare; while to some gentlemen the highest form of sport consists of expressions of mutual sympathy through the exchange of courtesies in an environment which is, on the surface, combative.

If any discrimination can properly be made between essentials, justice is the first essential of fair play; if any single test be used to reveal the true sportsman it is of his capacity for appreciating and weighing the elements of justice in any sports situation; and if any single motto be adopted to distinguish the good sportsman it might well be the Greek words, *dikaia hypothēkē*—"justice our foundation."¹

The practice of justice in sports consists essentially in refusal to give or receive an unfair advantage to or from an opponent. The difficulty in interpreting this rule lies in distinguishing between fair and unfair advantages. Obviously it would be grossly unjust to match twelve players against eleven players in a football game. The "sense of justice" in short (which really is no "sense" at all, but an ideal of conduct built

¹ Even dishonesty and discourtesy are, in effect, forms of injustice.

up through the tradition of generations of sport), of every sportsman would be profoundly shocked by such a situation. Yet the spectacle of eleven big (or strong) men playing football against eleven small (or weak) men presents, often, an even more unjust condition which the true sportsman must condemn quite as severely as he condemns the playing of twelve men against eleven men.

In interschool sport steps are taken to meet the justice criterion of fair play by certain eligibility rules—age limits, the “three years of participation” rule in most universities, rules against professionals (on the assumption that they enjoy superior opportunities for self-improvement) and others. On the field of play it is considered unjust to pounce on a fallen opponent (who is in a disadvantageous position) or hide the ball. Carrying this concept further, sportsmen do not grease their football uniforms, or permit two men to guard one in basketball, or use other than “regulation” bats in baseball. Such measures, if indulged in by both sides, would spoil the game and are therefore banned. If followed by only one side they would provide that side with an unfair advantage and so would become unjust.

On the other hand, in golf it is considered just for each individual to use the best clubs and balls obtainable on the assumption that these are available to all. In football scouting is, by some, considered just on the assumption that it may be indulged in by all, while others declare scouting to be unjust and therefore con-

trary to good sportsmanship. These examples indicate the difficulties confronting the gentleman who would be a good sportsman. As a gentleman he naturally "thinks of the other fellow," and as a gentleman he desires to be just, to refuse to give or accept unfair advantages—but, since he is untrained in sports, he is puzzled as to whether a given practice provides one side with a fair or an unfair advantage.

The entire problem of justice in games and sports may be re-stated positively as one of *securing at least approximate equality of playing powers between competing teams*; for any inequality must result in an advantage to one team. But any advantage would obviously be a handicap to the opponents, it would reduce the game to a test, and not even a test of the relative playing merits of the opposing teams, but a test of the value and effect of the inequality existing between the two teams. Such a test might have scientific value, but not any play value, and therefore cannot be justified as sportsmanlike—for the good sportsman seeks above all to give and receive joy in games and sports. If equality does not prevail no game (in the best meaning of the term) has occurred.

Using the criterion of equality any problem of justice in games and sports is much easier to solve. *Any practice is unjust, therefore unfair play and consequently unsportsmanlike conduct, which tends to destroy or results in the destruction of equality of playing abilities between competing teams, and conversely, those practices which purport to establish or re-establish*

equality of abilities are highly just, fair and sportsmanlike. Stated otherwise, the more nearly *equal* are the two teams the more *fair* will be the contest.

Absolute equality, perfect honesty and unfailing courtesy are goals which never will be reached by any sportsman, but they are ideals which all who desire to play fairly will hold up as worthy ultimate goals to point towards and which all good sportsmen will strive for whenever and wherever opportunities occur.

The apparent fact that American interschool and intercollegiate sport practices have advanced well along the road of fair play must be a source of satisfaction to all who are concerned for the welfare either of sport or of society. Flagrantly dishonest practices which were once quite common now seldom occur; exchanges of at least the more obvious courtesies are the rule rather than the exception; and the grosser inequalities between competing teams are not so common as they once were.

Much remains to be done, however. Honest practices often are the result of fear of dishonest practices being discovered rather than natural consequences of a sportsmanlike desire to be honest. Courteous exchanges often cease soon after the whistle blows, the typical facial expression of players being a heavy frown, and the typical cheer of "cheering sections" being variations of "fight 'em! team, fight 'em!" while

the ideal of justice (the essence of fair play) limps along sadly in the rear.

For the typical intercollegiate game today has become a *test* of the opposing schools' success in securing as great a preponderance of playing abilities as possible, each over the other. Instead of the ideal of equality guiding the efforts of coaches, managers, and supporters, and tempering the emotions of captains and players, the ideal of victory has overwhelmed almost all other considerations. Each organization now strives for as great initial *inequality* as possible, that the game may be won and the score be at least "safe." Proselyting is common in many universities; players with reputations are lured on by promises of immediate payment in money or "glory" or by hope of future rewards; the best coaches available are secured; the most expensive equipment is purchased; the most modern training systems are used; in fact everything is done to secure—equality? On the contrary . . . Thus the spectacle on the playing field itself has degenerated into a test, while the real game today is played between alumni, coaches, and managers—to determine which side can, with a fair field and no favors (like the golfer who feels free to use the best clubs and balls because they are available to all—at a price) produce the superior team.¹

¹This new game being played by their elders may be a fair game for alumni, but it is regrettable that schoolboys and college men must be the marionettes. It would be much better if the amateur tradition were abandoned, and each college hired its representative teams, leaving to schoolboys the great opportunities for the development of sportsmanship and other character qualities which the proper conduct of games and sports may give.

If our analysis of fair play has been correct, coaches who strive to produce superior teams violate a fundamental principle of sportsmanship by teaching their pupils, through example, that superiority is more greatly to be desired than is equality in sport. Whenever a coach interferes with the progress of the game and *upsets the balance* he strikes a blow at fair play. It is when he attempts to secure equality that he is educationally sound and a good sportsman. But who, today, would expect a coach to give up clear superiority—a won game—by putting in enough substitutes to provide fair playing conditions for an opposing team? This suggestion may seem preposterous, but to the extent that sportsmen feel impelled to reject the idea of equalizing at least the physical forces of competing teams they measure their own failure to incorporate in their own spirits the ideal of fair play.

The plain truth is that school and college coaches themselves suffer from one of the most sinister and abominably unjust situations in the whole structure of society, from which they must be extricated before the very ideal of fair play in sport is lost to the god of "victory," for almost everywhere the coach is held responsible for the fortunes of the teams he coaches regardless of other conditioning factors in the success

or failure of his teams. Either he "turns out a winning team" or he is turned out.¹

The injustice of this situation is quickly demonstrated. Since every game results either in a tie or in victory for one team and defeat for the other, then no matter how competent coaches may be nearly half of them must lose every game. The mathematical law is inexorable. Therefore to demand either victory or the coach's resignation must inevitably result in many coaches' positions being vacated annually, again regardless of their abilities. If it were possible to provide coaches with fair, that is, *equal* opportunities such a procedure might conceivably be justified by jungle law if not by human or educational principles; but when the coach must make the best of whatever material the student body and the alumni provide, the situation becomes ethically impossible. No true sportsman should blame the coach under such conditions. Yet so many coaches are so blamed that their only hope is in abandonment of the ideal of justice in sport, in order to secure enough superiority to guarantee victory for their teams—and therefore tenure and salary for themselves.

Having abandoned justice it is not surprising to discover that other ideals are abandoned too, and that the coach is forced (by a predatory alumni which itself throws all else to the winds to secure "victory") into worse practices—to squirm around the very rules of the game in order to bring the larger score to his

¹ See note, page 14.

team—that is, to control the game from the sidelines either through signals, by orders sent in by messengers (ostensible substitutes) or by making substitutions outright.

As long as the coach is held responsible for victory he is bound to strive for superiority over opponents, teaching his own players by his every action and hope to nullify a fundamental quality of fair play and good sportsmanship. But if his responsibility be conceived otherwise he may again strive not only to teach fair play as well as skill, but so to arrange the conditions of contests that justice will not be violated.

Regardless of the rules of the game and the welfare of coaches, coach-control of schoolboy contests provides many unfair conditions for players of which four will be pointed out here.

First, if the game be regarded as *play* to be enjoyed by the players, for a coach to interfere may secure his or others' personal enjoyment, but always at the players' expense. Card players who resent the intrusions of advisors looking over their shoulders will appreciate the truth of this observation.

Second, if the game be regarded as a *test*, either of the players' ability to perform, or the coach's ability to teach, of the school's ability to attract talent, it is as unfair (dishonest and unjust) to permit the coach to control the game as to permit classroom teachers to

assist their pupils in examinations. In this respect most debating societies may have a higher concept of fair play than do most athletic associations, for the former almost invariably prohibit adult coaching after the debate has begun.

Third, whether the game be regarded *either as play or a test* it is unfair (unjust) to pit a team of eleven boys against another team of eleven boys aided by a coach on the side lines. To point out that both teams may have coaches and that therefore conditions are equalized is to crystallize the picture: *two adults playing the game, using the players as pawns*. A more unjust condition than this could hardly be imagined. If there are any lessons learned the coaches are the chief beneficiaries; if there are any tangible fruits of victory the coach gets them (for the players are amateurs); but if there are any injuries the players suffer alone. Justice is endangered even for the coaches, since one coach is blamed for defeat in every game regardless of his ability, while the players lose opportunities for self-development whether or not they gain the larger score.

Fourth, if the game be regarded and organized as *amusement* for the crowd (as when two teams meet in a city far removed from the school of either) it must become work for the players, whose duty it is to supply the amusement. Under these conditions the workers should be paid for their services. Then to induce players to give their services for rewards in "glory"

instead of money reduces "glory" to a commercial basis. But amateurs must not be paid. Then perhaps "glory" is of no value. If so, pupils are being paid in "caps and bells" and actually are induced to purchase "bubbles with a whole soul's tasking." The unfairness of such a procedure to the players themselves must be patent, yet it is common in schoolboy sports.

Two agencies may be chiefly responsible for thus *using* players: the athletic association which organizes "amateur championships," (participation in which yields the players no financial return though spectators pay to attend them)¹ and the coach who acts as a steward and foreman of workmen for his employers. In scholastic sports if there were no coach driving the players it is doubtful whether schoolboy athletes would voluntarily, and without hope of payment of some sort, engage in activities organized for the amusement of paying (and fundamentally non-partisan) spectators.

Three points should be clearly evident from the foregoing discussion. First, fair play involves, as one of its essential characteristics, equality of at least the more obvious playing powers of competitors. Second, the ideal and practice of equality in fair play is sadly neglected in schoolboy games and sports—so much so

¹The effect of championships on schoolboy athletes is discussed in Chapter IX.

that the *game* today is to secure as much superiority of abilities over opponents as possible. Third, the function of the coach has degenerated from that of a teacher to that of a *procuror of victory*.

Whether fair play be served or violated can no longer be considered by the coach. He must violate fair play in fact, by striving for superiority—and not even superiority in skill is enough. In other words he may even cease to teach at all if by other means superiority is secured—long practice periods, intensive physical training programs, inducements to star athletes to attend the school, searches for physical giants (especially in football), training large numbers of substitutes and using these both to carry in signals and to wear down opponents. These are common methods of procuring victory which would not be used were fair play a dominating ideal in schoolboy sports. Finally, the coach may use his influence to raise to a high pitch the fighting instincts of his players. He does these things, not to *teach* the game, but to gain superiority over opponents that he may *win* the game.

Thus the ideal of fair play and the coach-who-is-hired-to-win are hopelessly at odds; and we must conclude that to place control of schoolboy athletics in his hands is to abandon fair play in scholastic sports.

The coach is not to be blamed, however. Those who employ him to engage in unsportsmanlike tactics are the responsible persons. But the employers (and even the players) are dominated by desires for win-

ning teams—for victories which will yield them satisfactions—satisfactions which are supremely selfish because they can be secured only at the expense of others' dissatisfactions.¹

The question now arises: *are fair play and victory mutually repellant ideals or goals in athletic endeavors?* No good sportsman would abandon fair play, though, and it may be that true victory is not incompatible with a desire for equality between opponents. But we may need to revise our concept of what constitutes "true victory."

¹ Joseph Conrad observes in *A Personal Record* ". . . I think all ambitions are lawful except those which climb upward on the miseries or credulities of mankind. . . ."

CHAPTER VII

Victory

"Victory" is always the goal of human endeavor. It is not surprising, then, that the conduct of games and sports should be conditioned by this hope and aim, and that players, managers, and supporters should seek by every fair means to achieve their heart's desire.

Success is properly to be sought everywhere in life; certainly true victory is as desirable in sports as elsewhere; and possibly it is well for the winners of a game to receive a moderate amount of praise and other more or less tangible fruits of victory.¹ What must gravely concern both sportsmen and educators, however, is that our current conception of victory is almost absolutely false, for we seize upon one of the very least consequential measures of superior performance which rational humans may appreciate: the *score*, calculated by adding points which are the result of the arrival of a ball or man at a given place according to given rules. It is as if we were to measure the suc-

¹ "How much praise?" is an important problem in psychology and ethics which cannot be discussed here. The Stoic emperor, Marcus Aurelius Antonius, gives a challenging answer from the point of view of the individual.

" . . . As a horse after a race, and a hunting dog when he hath hunted, and a bee when she hath made her honey look not for applause and commendation; so neither doth that man that rightly doth understand his own nature when he hath done a good turn; but from one doth proceed to do another, even as the vine after she hath once borne fruit in her own proper season, is ready for another time. . . ."

cess of an automobile tour solely by the mileage registered on the speedometer, for the score of most team games does little more than to report (with abominable inaccuracy) the progress of a ball up and down a field, into a basket, or about a diamond. Doubtless a more scientific age will insist that the measures be more accurate and the score tell more truly what happened to the ball, but such an "improvement" will be unfortunate for it will elevate to even greater apparent importance some of the very least intrinsically significant events in the game.

Scores of games have a very definite meaning (which will be pointed out below) but it is quickly shown that they are of little significance as measures of human victory over the forces of inanimate nature or even over human nature. Thus, if the assumption be made that boys engage in interschool contests for the joy of playing, the case against the numerical score of the contest is instantly complete. "The amounts of joy and other satisfactions which were the concomitants of activity in the game" are the proper measures of success to apply in such cases. But the score does not pretend to measure these.

Schoolboys and college and university men often have far different objects for their interschool contests and these objects may be wholly praiseworthy. "Personal honor, and glory for the school through victory" are often-professed objectives of interschool sport today. "Honor" and "glory" are high aims, which in themselves do great credit to youth. They deserve the

respect and encouragement of maturity's deepest wisdom, but youth has been betrayed by the example of an emotional and uncritical public which erroneously accepts the numerical score of the game as the chief measure of success or failure—of honor or disgrace—almost regardless of the events which resulted in scores being achieved.

How far this adult-sanctioned criterion of "victory" falls short of measuring honor, or even skill, and so misleads youth, is soon demonstrated. Six points will be made here, though others will occur to the reader.

1. It is more true than even many of the best-trained sportsmen realize, that athletic victories (especially in football, crew and track sports, and only to a lesser extent in others involving the use of the larger muscle groups) depend on the brute strength of muscles, or on a combination of crude strength *and* strength-in-proportion-to-weight (endurance or "condition"). The validity of this observation is amply borne out by listing the greatest modern athletes,¹ or by comparing the obvious physical powers of last season's football teams. Moreover, scientific evidence is available to prove that muscular strength alone, as measured by strength tests, accounts for about half of the factors which go to make up athletic ability.² This being true it is always pertinent to enquire, concerning any contest, whether the muscular power of the opponents were equal. If

¹Any attempt to list the names of apparently small or weak champions will reveal the fact that the exceptions prove the rule.

² See the writer's *Tests and Measurement Programs in the Redirection of Physical Education*, Chapters IV and V. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

not then the score may simply provide a measure of the relative brute strength of the two teams.

No one would be especially proud of the superior animal energy possessed by his own team, however—the cross section and efficiency of its muscle tissue. For example, no university man would cheer because of any score his team might achieve over an elementary school team. The differences in brute strength alone would be too obvious: the injustice of the contest would be too apparent. But attempts to equalize the strength of the teams which meet in schoolboys' contests in America are only sporadic or halfhearted; and since no one knows the relative physical powers of opponents it should be obvious that the score cannot indicate whether the "victor" were more skillful, or merely stronger physically; that is, whether the "victory" is really worthy of exciting pride or any other emotional response.

2. The attention given to coaches in newspaper accounts of schoolboys' athletics and the money spent on them indicates that these persons are, to some extent at least, responsible for the scores of games. And yet who, in cheering his team, stops to reflect whether the chief, if not the sole, honor should go to the coach? If it should, then good sportsmanship would demand that the coach be cheered rather than the team, which is his beneficiary. But, since the relative physical powers of the two teams are unknown, it is impossible safely to assign glory to the coach or to the team, or even, as is usually done, to cheer both coach and team impartially.

3. It is possible, too, that the "winning" team devoted more time to practice, and had older and more experienced players. What alumnus in cheering victory (as measured by the score) would cheer if he knew his team won simply because they practiced longer hours? . . . However, no one knows which team was more experienced, and even if this important fact were known, the factors of strength and quality of coaching are unknown quantities which may have been the determining elements in the situation.

4. Or the winning team may have eaten better food, and chanced to be in a better state of chemical equilibrium and electronic coordination. Are these the qualities which are being cheered?

5. Or the larger score may have resulted through the intervention of chance, for chance does determine scores. An inopportune bounce of a ball, a whistle blown at a crucial moment, a stumble in a depression of the ground, a freak gust of wind, a blind throw at a basket, and literally thousands of other events beyond the power of man to control or foresee may determine that instead of A, B shall receive the extra point. But is this a legitimate cause for the frenzy of a serpentine? Rational persons may be relieved because the penny falls "heads-up" but certainly they do not assume that they deserve to be congratulated as having accomplished a difficult and worthy task.

6. Finally, the game may have been won because of the superior strategy of the winning team (under the General Regulation) or its superior cooperative play-

ing, or superior courage, perseverance or other moral qualities. Such a display may properly deserve glory and other fruits of victory, if anyone could be at all certain that these were the factors which determined the difference in the score.

The obvious fact (and a fact that no sportsmen can ignore and remain a true sportsman) is that no student or alumnus witnessing our modern school and college athletic spectacles has any accurate method of determining whether the "victory" were due to moral courage or brute strength, whether it were due to the cooperative spirit of the team or to the superior wit of the coach, whether it were due to perseverance or superior diet, or, after all, whether luck did not cast the deciding vote.

Confronted by this confused state of affairs it is impossible intelligently to assign any significant meaning to, or justify any deep personal satisfaction in, the score. The conclusion is inescapable that those persons who do accept the score as a token or symbol worthy of any higher consideration than to determine the payment of wagers must be misled or uninformed.

"What, then, shall be our measure of victory?" is a question which must be answered by each individual according to his interests and his philosophy. If he desires to know which team is the stronger physically he must watch the play closely and seek to determine *why* the ball moved where it did move. If he is interested in measuring the relative efficiency of the two coaches, he must make far different observations, re-

membering that brute strength, previous experience, physical condition, luck and length of practice periods may totally obscure the coach's handiwork. If his deepest concerns are for the development of the finer human qualities of courage, sympathy, cooperation, initiative and perseverance, he must make appropriate observations.

Thus each individual may prepare his own score card and make his own calculations. Whoever does so will be rewarded by countless illuminating insights into these human spectacles which entirely escaped his attention before; and he will be rewarded by a deeper appreciation of the game itself, as well as of the relative qualities of the two teams; but at the same time he must necessarily relinquish his privilege of exalting or wailing with the crowd which accepts the score as the ultimate measure of victory and defeat.

Although the numerical scores of athletic contests are almost totally unreliable guides to true victory and defeat they have a very definite significance and value. The score indicates, though roughly, whether the conditions of the contest were just to the players. Thus, a score of 25 to 0 indicates that conditions were unfair to both teams. Even if luck accounted for the entire score nevertheless it must be granted that Dame Fortune dealt somewhat unfairly with both teams. Certainly if it were apparent, as it often is, that the higher score

were due to the greater physical powers of the "victors" obviously a grossly unfair condition prevailed, and, moreover, a condition which, if the game were football, provided serious dangers to the physical health and safety of the weaker team.

These considerations lead naturally to the conclusion that, since differences in the final scores measure, though roughly, the degree of unfairness involved in the conditions of the game, and since equality is an ideal of fair play, *the ideal score among good sportsmen is a tie score*. That this conclusion is logical and proper there can be no doubt; that it is utterly foreign to modern sports traditions only measures again how far removed we are today from practicing the ideal of justice in games and sports. In our desire for victory we are willing to risk, by extending the playing time or action, the dreaded humiliation of defeat. We are even prone to dub a "stalemate" the tie score which should have been welcomed as evidence that at least justice in fair play may have been perfectly served.¹

¹The psychological explanation of the almost universal rejection of tie scores as desirable outcomes of athletic contests is significant. Desire for "victory" during weeks of practice results in pent-up energies which are not entirely dissipated by the excitement or play during the game. Moreover traditions provide a promise of an outlet at the end of play especially for the victors and their supporters. Interest in the progress of the game is restrained and enthusiasm over incidents therein is curbed or postponed until scores are made which will give hope of future release of energy. Consequently every interested person finds himself at the end of the game with a great store of energy ready to be expended.

The traditional response to the tie score is to restrict all enthusiasm, thus continuing the inhibitions to overt behavior. The effect of these inhibitions must be most unpleasant. Consequently tie scores may never be welcomed by the multitude any more than their value can be appreciated by the man who needs the salve of "victory" to restore or create a self-respect which will release his pent-up energies.

Nevertheless tie scores are ideal scores upon which good sportsmen must eventually come to look with deep satisfaction, for they connote an equality of abilities and harmony of interests which are the indispensable prerequisites of friendship in games and sports.¹

Theorists may question whether the foregoing expositions of the essential qualities of fair play, the hollowness of victory as measured by scores, the desirability of tie scores, and the possibility of seeing in games and sports the play of personalities, are "practical" or "possible." They have tradition and the omniscient phrase "it is against human nature" to support their contentions, but evidence is not wanting to prove that the more humane attitudes are not beyond the capacities of human powers. Every day during the professional baseball season one may witness just such human interest and intelligence on the part of the more enlightened metropolitan "fan" who has learned

¹ With this view those who hold the ideal of fair play will quickly agree—and find themselves in company with President-elect Hoover who "indicated that he would not be displeased if the game (Stanford-Washington) ended in a tie, at the same time making it clear that he did not want his Alma Mater to lose." (Quoted from the report of a staff correspondent of the New York Times, dated Palo Alto, California, November 17). One is reminded also of Cicero's essay on *Friendship* in which he lays down the rule "put yourself on a level with your friend."

The reader will find an example of the opposite view in a comment by George Jean Nathan: ". . . If I play a game I play it to win. . . . The best sportsman is out to demonstrate his superior skill and to lick his opponent. Any other view is sheer sentimental buncombe." (*American Mercury*, February, 1928, page 243.)

to view baseball as a series of highly interesting human events, each to be understood in its setting and appreciated according to its own individual and intrinsic worth. Incidents without number which have no bearing on the score, and which the casual visitor misses entirely, literally fascinate the true fan. A skillful or clever play by any player on either team is properly appreciated; and even when a home run king strikes out the crowd enjoys this triumph of the pitcher over its idol almost regardless of its effect on the final score of the game.

For what cares the true fan for this final score? He goes to see baseball played, rather than to see *X* victorious and *Y* humiliated, and he gets his money's worth, both during the game and in reading the newspaper reports afterward—reports which are prepared by competent writers fully alive to relative values. If the headlines read "*X* defeats *Y*," the account which follows demonstrates that the true interest of the reporter lies less in the score than in the dramatic and human incidents of the game. If the score is featured it is done to report some of the more tangible facts of the game; but even the headlines concerning professional baseball often ignore the score. "Babe Ruth Hits Homer" is more important news than who won the game—to the metropolitan baseball fan.

But not to the college fan who may, through the "victory" of his school team, achieve some reflected glory, secure the right to boast before friends, and offend strangers. Not even the most enlightened col-

lege or university cheering section has a tithe the interest, inherent sportsmanship, or pleasure in witnessing athletic contests which are common at the Polo Grounds or Yankee Stadium on any warm summer's day. Thus is youth misled by a symbol of victory—a symbol so misinterpreted that when it does attain significance its true meaning is completely ignored; that is, the one-sided score, since "twenty-five to nothing" indicates that one team was so superior to its opponents (whatever the nature or cause of that superiority) that justice and fair play were violated.

The question arises: "Why had not the victors been good sportsmen enough to put in all the available substitutes to make a fair game for both sides?" "Because the coach may have feared that the substitutes would have permitted their opponents to score," may be the true answer, or possibly because he and his supporters took greater delight the more they humiliated their neighbors in sport. Thus, concentration of interest on the score (a mathematical calculation relating to the more superficial behavior of a ball and players, and having almost no relation to the most human and intrinsically worth-while events of the game) as the sole measure of "victory" already has destroyed much of the good feeling which must always be a chief factor in the enjoyment of games and sports, whether by players or by spectators; moreover this preoccupation over the score often has almost totally obscured our interest in those events which indicate true victory and defeat.

Nowhere in this analysis has the suggestion been made that players should not strive toward the goals of their endeavors with all the courage, skill and perseverance at their command. This is no "defeatist" argument. True success is always to be desired, but educators must ensure that the goals be fundamental, human and rational rather than superficial, unsympathetic and absurd. "To desire to place a ball on a given spot" is a rational objective of play, but "to desire to achieve glory for myself" by so doing (even at the expense of my playmates' happiness) is as far from a play goal as can well be imagined.

Victories over nature are significant and may be causes for rejoicing¹ as, for example, the elimination of a disease, a triumph over the elements, or the lengthening of life. True victories over the lower expressions of human nature are significant too, as a triumph of courage over fear, and forgetting oneself in a higher endeavor (Charles Lindbergh, provides a classic example of this type of victory), or sublimating one's own selfish motives to other motives of a more social character.

True victories of right principles are worthy of rejoicing, too, but there must be assurance that the prin-

¹Philosophers will question even this statement. "Cooperation with nature" might be accepted as a higher objective than "triumph over nature"—if we could be vouchsafed a revelation of the objectives of natural forces.

ciples *are* right principles. Probably the victory of justice over injustice, of freedom over slavery, and of culture over mechanism are worthy of praise.

Victory over other persons, however, has but little positive human significance at best, and should never be boasted over or made the subject of an emotional outburst. In its mildest form it merely indicates differences in powers between individuals. In its worst form a victory of one individual or group over another is a method of mutual destruction and finally leads to the passing of the race. Players should always strive for efficiency in practice and give their all in games, but it is a prime duty of their coaches to teach them that no apparent victory over a human being can be counted a personal triumph. The only human triumphs worth celebrating are over the forces of nature, including, each for himself, human nature. The more completely do coaches imbue their pupils with these ideals and desires the better for both sport, humanity and the coaches themselves.

It may be argued that the ideas here presented cannot be encompassed by human nature. The ideals which have been proposed in the foregoing sections are exceedingly mild, however, compared with the concepts of a round world as a substitute for a flat world, of a Copernican for a Ptolemaic cosmology, of democracy rather than despotism, or of charity in the place of an

eye for an eye. Indeed, evidence is not wanting to give hope that Youth may venture far beyond the necessarily circumscribed ideals of older philosophers. For example, the following editorial prepared by a courageous college student indicates how quickly and how completely Youth embraces in practice what appeals to its sympathy and understanding.¹

"Last year, at the Undergraduate Dinner of State Teachers College, at the very moment when enthusiasm for a victorious basketball team was at its highest pitch . . . the speaker for the evening declared that no team deserved to be cheered because it won a victory. In a period such as our own which sets up the athletic hero and the beauty contest winner, this heresy stands out as an acceptance of a great challenge. Go to a baseball game, a boxing match, or a horse race, and in each case you will find that the meaning of sportsmanship has been buried under a mass of selfish and emotional views. Either the mob cheers the winner or it sympathizes with the loser. 'No team,' said the speaker, 'deserves to be cheered because it won a victory. The fact that it has been victorious may be due to a number of things: . . .'

"We recall these things at this time especially, because they were better considered at the beginning of the basketball season than at the end. Let us strive, without any superfluous show of sentimentalism, to be good sports and good friends. Let us cheer, not for the winning team, but for the team that best exhibits such human qualities as are universally laudable."

In any program of developmental or recreative athletics the score and the "victory" it indicates have little significance, for they are dependent on so many un-

¹ From an editorial printed in the October 11, 1928 issue of *Record* of the Buffalo State Teachers' College. Italics do not appear in the original.

measured factors that, like the speedometer mileage of an automobile, or the temperature of the blood, they only report in the vaguest terms a situation or past series of events which may or may not need further investigation and analysis. Under present conditions in which the various determining factors are unknown and relatively uncontrolled, the score is no measure at all of true victory or defeat.

But it is not essential to the deepest satisfactions of either players or spectators that there be any victor or defeated. Perhaps we may need to turn to the fairy tales of childhood for guidance here. Grimm provides a complete picture in a few words: "But the dwarf answered: 'No; something human is dearer to me than the wealth of all the world.'"

CHAPTER VIII

Competition

Few persons will reject equality and tie scores as desirable conditions and outcomes of ideal sport, but many will find it difficult to reconcile these concepts with the apparently dominant urge which motivates most participants in sports—the “competitive” urge. The situation may be summed up in the observation that no one enjoys being overcome, even in play; therefore all strive to overcome their opponents. This striving is a natural and inevitable concomitant of the competitive spirit.

Now the competitive spirit in sport and the striving it produces are necessary to give life to any game. A game or sport without competition—without the desire for personal triumph over obstacles—would be as devoid of meaning and value as a symphony played on mute instruments, or a painting without an idea, or a book without a purpose. Competition is the very essence of sport.

It is a relatively simple matter, though, for a musician to forget his relation to the orchestra in an attempt to make his instrument heard above the others; and it not infrequently happens that the conductor forgets the composer and his score in an endeavor to attract favor to his own personality. Likewise painters some-

times use colors and techniques which will yield them personal attention at the expense of expressing ideas or mastering problems; and sensational books of no consequence, in which the author has forgotten his original purpose in an effort to exalt his personal cleverness above that of his competitors, are sometimes printed.

A similar degradation occurs in sports. Games once played for recreation are now used to exalt personalities. Players are now conscious, not of immediate pleasures, but of ultimate glory or disgrace. Instead of harmony and a cooperative spirit between opponents, the prevailing attitude, in interscholastic sports especially, is that of discord.

Perhaps it was inevitable that games and sports in the United States should take on a highly personal-competition cast, both because we are a tense people and because our present economic life is of an intensely competitive nature. Personal competition—psychic conflict—is not a necessary part of activity in games and sports, however. Indeed, it is not even a proper element in play activities. Its *apparent* inevitability only renders more difficult and important the task of teaching games in ways which will prevent inhuman and unsocial impulses from taking charge.

Fundamentally the true nature of activity in games (as everywhere else in life) is a struggle to overcome

natural obstacles—to move a ball down a field, to kick it over a crossbar and between two posts, to drop it in a basket, to hit it “over the fence” or into a three-inch hole five hundred yards away, and so on. The natural forces to be contended with are gravitation and inertia,¹ especially; and there are human forces to be overcome as well, such as lack of physical strength, faulty neuromuscular coordinations, faulty coordinations between eyes, ears, kinesthetic senses and muscular responses, poor intellectual judgments, conflicts between emotions, judgments and neuromuscular controls, and others.

In such individualistic sports as high jumping, pole vaulting, shot putting, golf, billiards, bowling, shooting and exploring, the only true “competitors” are these forces. Personal opponents only affect performance as they interfere with the emotional and intellectual behavior of the performer. Properly speaking such opponents do not *compete*, for they are not *obstacles to be overcome*. At the other extreme are the fighting sports such as boxing and wrestling, in which the opponent is the chief obstacle to be overcome; and midway between are such sports as football and basketball in which the opponent aids natural forces to prevent the player from moving a ball to a goal.

Thus, there are many sports which may be pursued without the aid of opponents, but there are some (and these, like football, basketball and baseball, are most popular among schoolboys), which *require the coopera-*

¹ Another conditioning factor is chance; but since chance cannot be contended with it should be ignored or discounted by the player. For him to rail at his “luck” is, of course, ridiculous.

tion of opponents to give them any zest. Without an opponent there would be no serious difficulty in moving a football down a field. The opponent provides the chief obstacles and thereby performs an essential service to the player. The better the opponent performs, the greater are the obstacles; and since the game is essentially one of overcoming obstacles, it must follow that the most skillful opponents provide the most stimulating obstacles and therefore perform the greatest services.¹

These observations suggest the unexpected truth that so-called *competitors* in such sports as football and basketball are really *serving* each other; and what is called (and appears on the surface to be) a competitive contest is really a highly developed form of personal cooperation. Properly conceived, basketball is a game in which two groups of players meet for mutual enjoyment, with both sides conforming to very involved restrictions and guiding rules in order that all may secure the greatest amount and highest quality of activity. In these games quite as much as in golf the obstacles to be overcome are natural physical forces (including the moving bodies of the opponents) and the human forces within the players themselves. The *opponents* merely add more, and more complicated, obstacles to be overcome—obstacles whose character

¹This statement requires one modification. If the opponents are very much superior to the player, the former will prevent the latter from handling the ball at all. In this case there will be but little play for the inferior player, for the obstacles will be unsurmountable. The ideal situation occurs when equality reigns between opponents, for then the balance of powers will provide each side with equal opportunities for "playing" and "opposing." Hence the tie score is the ideal score.

cannot be predicted and whose strength cannot be solved until the very instant of clash.

Good sportsmen view with regret, however, the shift of interest which has occurred in schoolboys' sports from the game to the personalities involved. No longer is "the play the thing," for the glory which accrues to players and supporters overshadows all. Teams do not "play the ball" as they should, but now "play the man." Opponents are seldom conceived as friends who perform an indispensable service in making the game both possible and enjoyable, but enemies to be routed and humiliated. These hopes and fears tend to destroy the game itself, to say nothing of stirring up brutal emotions in all concerned, and creating mind-sets which doubtless are transferred to the bridge table, the laboratory, the shop, the counting room and even to the church.¹

¹Perhaps the most intensive form of sport occurs between opponents who possess nearly perfect mechanical skill. The games played by such players become "battles of wits."

"Under such conditions," it may be asked, "how can we differentiate between the opponent as a friend to be served and the opponent as a personal competitor to be overcome?" The writer's only answer to this question here is that those who have the capacity and desire to make such a differentiation will find it both possible and profitable to do so. Chess players offer good examples of competitors who, in spite of the extremely personal, because exclusively psychic, nature of their competition nevertheless consider and treat each other as friends. To maintain the dual relationship of friend and competitor provides the sportsman with an intensely personal struggle.

Whoever entertains a desire to triumph over his opponent—that is, whoever derives a personal satisfaction from the defeat of his opponent—is in need of psychic re-adjustment. Even though it seems the most natural attitude, and one which is inevitable, nevertheless it is destructive of almost all that is good in play. We may say with assurance that whoever has an intense desire "to win the higher score" ought not to engage in competitive sport. It were better for him, for his opponents, and for the integrity of the game itself that he leave it to those who are less predatory in nature, and that he seek his recreation and companionship in activities which do not lend themselves so easily to psychic warfare.

Games and sports become instruments of social disintegration when used to serve selfish aims, but they perform valiant services both in developing social character and in providing joyful, healthful recreation when they are properly guided. As the orchestral conductor must constantly hold his ideal before himself and his players if the music is to be sincere, so must the teacher of games and sports preserve their purity and integrity. The essence of sports is competition, but personal opponents must always be regarded as friends serving each other in the interests of the game. Such a concept may seem droll to coaches-who-are-hired-to-win; but it must prevail if games and sports are to remain in the category of recreative and social activities.

The reader may pause here to view the aspect of a play-world in which opponents are regarded primarily as friends serving each other, when behold! all the truth of the two foregoing chapters takes on new meaning: equality as well as courtesy and honesty are now seen as welcome aids to the maintenance of friendship and mutual service in the game itself; while "victory" no less than "defeat" becomes an insignificant incident of play.

CHAPTER IX

Amateurism

The relationships are very close between the American amateur tradition on the one hand and fair play, victory and competition on the other. While it might be difficult to establish causal relationships between them, nevertheless the abandonment of the present amateur tradition would almost inevitably bring to the fore the problem of equalizing the abilities of opponents in scholastic and collegiate athletics—and this would be well. Certainly our present conception of amateurism permits grossly unfair practices in games and sports; and just as certainly does it permit other practices which tend to destroy the play spirit in and through highly organized athletics. Moreover the present rules for the determination of the amateur status of athletes are in imminent danger of collapse: there should be something to take their place. This “something” need not be another rule, however.

The present amateur tradition in athletics may have originated with the wealthy leisure class which wished to protect its sports from contamination by self-seekers; but this historical half-truth does not explain

the general acceptance of an almost exclusively pecuniary interpretation of amateurism in a day when practically all outstanding "amateur" athletes come of families poorly supplied with this world's goods, and who themselves must work for a living.

Today the amateur is defined as one who plays solely for the sake of the game, but his status is measured in terms of legal tender or, rather, refusal to accept money for athletic performances; and this refusal is acknowledged almost unquestioningly as the chief, if not the sole, criterion of amateurism. He who has never accepted money for athletic performances, coaching, or certain other services connected more or less intimately with athletics is an "amateur." But whoever has received money for any such activity becomes at the moment of first payment, and will remain forever after, a professional.¹

The futility of the pecuniary criterion as the chief measuring device to determine the amateur status of athletes is well-known. Those who must administer amateur athletic events are betrayed into the most absurd inconsistencies and do gross injustice to many sincere sportsmen. Methods of evasion (of paying athletes by methods which will not destroy their "amateur" status) are ridiculously easy to find and use; and even the application of the rule to obvious cases of infringement becomes more difficult each year. For example, certain official bodies recently have declared

¹ Provision is made for pardoning, under certain circumstances, athletes who have broken the amateur code. Such pardons are called "reinstatements."

that an athlete who received a few thousand dollars for playing tennis is *therefore* a professional in golf, though those who receive hundreds of thousands of dollars for prize-fighting still retain their amateur status as golfers. To the interested spectator this procedure seems quite unfair and they wonder into what new fields it may extend and what new interpretations it may lead to. Athletes may now receive money for reporting for the press any athletic tournaments except those in which they play, an amusing exception, certainly. To receive money for coaching "professionalizes" an athlete; but certain high school physical directors, whose chief interest is coaching, and who are paid "to coach" recently have represented the United States in the Olympic Games. To clerk in a sporting goods store also "professionalizes" an athlete, but to receive a million dollars a year from papá (while one practices for amateur championship events) is perfectly legitimate. The amateur must not accept money prizes in any amount, though trophies costing thousands of dollars are within the law—but the amateur must never sell them! Princely expense accounts are approved, extravagant travel allowance are provided, and even trips around the world are financed for the "bona fide" amateur; but salaries are never permitted. A noted amateur athlete may draw thousands of spectators who will pay fancy prices to see him perform, but the star may not receive a dollar of the money. Honor is supposed to be enough for any amateur. . . .

The interested person need not be a great prophet to foresee infinite confusion in the administration of the amateur rule which depends on money as the criterion of professionalism. If it is difficult even for a United States Supreme Court to establish the reason for the transfer of \$100,000 in a black bag, how much more involved is the problem of determining professionalism in sport! However, money is but a medium of exchange—a symbol. Amateur athletic associations and unions have seized upon it as a convenient sign of professionalism and, forgetting the ideal for which they stand, have at last elevated the symbol while ignoring the fact.

For it is characteristic of civilizations that in them symbols lose their meanings while the realities for which they stand are neglected, ignored and even, at times, destroyed. Thus we sometimes judge human worth in terms of bank accounts, deny liberty in the name of the flag for which it stands, and wage wars in the name of the Prince of Peace. It is not surprising to discover, then, that a symbol has taken the place of reality in sports: that the original meaning of the word "amateur" has been replaced by a dollar sign.

Etymologically, the word *amateur* is derived from the Latin verb *amo*—to love, and therefore it should always connote the mental attitude of affection. The amateur writes, paints or plays ball or the piano be-

cause he enjoys doing that thing—he “loves” to do it, almost regardless of consequences. Unless the term loses its distinctive meaning, then, *amateur* must always involve the idea of *love*. An amateur is one who loves his art.

Professionals love their art, too. Certainly this is true of Harold Bauer, Fritz Kreisler, Ignace Paderewski and Joseph Hoffman. Nevertheless these artists may not be called amateurs, for the very definite reason that they *use* their art for other purposes. Here is the crux of the entire problem of what constitutes amateurism as distinct from professionalism: the amateur pursues his art for his own individual and private satisfaction—literally because he must—without regard for consequences whether danger or reward—almost instinctively— “because he loves it,” we say. The professional, on the contrary, is led to perform by ulterior motives. It is not love—an irresistible attraction to the object of his affection—which actuates him, but desire to attain some end outside the art itself. To enjoy playing the piano is not enough for Harold Bauer. He must teach his art to other pianists and entertain audiences in order that he may obtain gifts from them, gifts which solitary indulgence will not provide. *The existence of an ulterior motive as a driving force is the true criterion of professionalism.*

Thus, the most fundamental difference between an amateur and a professional is psychological rather than financial; the money criterion is used because it is an indication and symbol of ulterior motives. That is,

amateur and *professional* denote mental states rather than overt behavior. They characterize what occurs in the mind rather than in the pocketbook. If an artist is motivated to write, play, act, or paint simply "for love of the playing" he is an amateur, but if he is motivated to perform with an ulterior purpose in mind he is a professional.¹

It will be instructive to glance at the great array of ulterior motives which transform an amateur into a professional. There is the ulterior motive to buy bread wherewith to keep body and soul together. There is the ulterior motive to purchase instruments, music, lessons—the tools and technique of one's art. There is the ulterior motive to support one's family; and to serve charity. . . . Those who use their art for these ends obviously are professional artists, whether they receive money (a medium of exchange) for their services or whether they receive the bread, instruments, lessons, or other largesse directly.

There is another type of motive which more truly professionalizes the artist than does acceptance of money or goods: the supremely selfish ulterior motive of securing praise for oneself, honor at court, personal or social preferment. Certainly the artist who plays for the sake of selfish glory is more completely the

¹ The term *professional* is primarily an adjective, which should be used to describe the *character of an activity* rather than the character of a person. The noun *profession* is properly used to denote the activity by which a man lives; that is, his major interest in which the largest number of his waking hours are spent. Thus most "amateur" champions truly *profess* their athletic activity. Since "professional" is widely used in sport to describe personality, however, it is necessary so to use it in this discussion.

professional than is he whose performances provide for others' beside himself.

Indeed, glory itself is, today, a medium of exchange with the prepotencies of an Alladin's lamp. It purchases medals, loving cups, banquets, trips to Europe and around the world; and it multiplies one's income from other activities such as writing, acting and bond selling many, many times.

Moreover, the selfish satisfaction of glory is itself payment enough for most human activities. Some men—not all, for the amateur spirit still lives in great adventurers as well as in unawakened youth—some men even climb mountains, ride over Niagara Falls in barrels, and undertake trans-oceanic aeroplane journeys for the sake of the short-lived warmth of newspaper notoriety. Psychologists recognize in “desire for social approval” one of the great mainsprings of human activity, and surely this motive is not altogether reprehensible. Nevertheless it *is* ulterior and those who are so motivated professionalize themselves in the activities used for its acquisition.

Apparently we are all professionals. Whether the activity be music, painting, athletics, engineering, salesmanship, or any other, ulterior motives rise to the level of consciousness. Thus there are only *degrees* of professionalism. Those who are intensely conscious of and driven by desire for ulterior objectives are the most professional of all, while those who are only faintly conscious of personal gain are least professional. Not many individuals will assert that

they "never told a falsehood." The rest of us are on the same plane with the worst liar. The distinction is merely one of degree. Likewise all of us must own to ulterior motives in sports, though some of us are more selfish and self-seeking than others; while the man who rises to say "I am an amateur, but thou art a professional" must compliment himself very highly; when, by the very casting of the stone he instantly professionalizes himself. . . .¹

Every cloud has its silver lining, if we have time to wait for its appearance: it is Time itself which provides the lining in our cloud of professionalism. For the truth would have been spoken more accurately had the statement been (instead of "*if* the artist is conscious," etc.), "*when* the artist is conscious of ulterior motives he is a professional." Surely there are times when Harold Bauer, forgetting his surroundings loses himself in his music! At such times he, and any other artist, whether a so-called professional or amateur, becomes in spirit a true amateur—a lover, indeed.

Thus, there are both *degrees* of professionalism and *times* of professionalism. At one moment the artist, completely forgetting himself in his art, is truly an

¹I cannot explain this point better than to quote, from Anatole France's *The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard*, a fragment of conversation between the friend of a little orphan and the master of the boarding school where she was placed.

"'You must remember, Monsieur,' (urged Maitre Mouche) 'that the education of the poor has to be conducted with a great deal of circumspection and with a view to that future state of dependence they must occupy in society. Perhaps you are not aware that the late Noël Alexandre died a bankrupt, and that his daughter is being educated almost by charity?'"

"'Oh! Monsieur!' I exclaimed, 'do not say it! To say it is to pay oneself back, and then the statement ceases to be true.'"

amateur. At another, remembering his audience and his selfish ambitions he becomes a professional; and since it is only when the artist completely forgets himself in his art that he can rise to real greatness, it is probable that the truest amateurs are to be found chiefly in the ranks of the so-called professionals. This situation certainly prevails in all other arts, and there are the best of reasons for believing it to hold true in the field of athletics as well.¹

The consequences of the present amateur tradition, which is administered almost solely in terms of a pecuniary criterion and the practices which it permits, protects and even encourages, constitute a grave menace to the very spirit of true amateurism. Six of these consequences or practices will be considered briefly here.

1. The first and most direct consequence of the generally accepted amateur rules in sports is the stratification of all sportsmen into two distinct castes—those who do accept and those who do not accept *direct* financial returns from their athletic activities.

Now, the amateur caste in sport is generally con-

¹By this time the reader will recognize fully the error of using *professional* to describe the status of individual sportsmen, since that status is impermanent. It is like saying "he is *an honest*." Good breeding demands that we stop with the comment "he is a tennis player." Whether "he" receives money for his playing is no one's affair but his own. To assume the pose of being too pure to accept money for athletic performance is "to pay oneself back, when the statement ceases to be true."

sidered to be higher than that to which workers belong. The amateur is conceived to be a gentleman and knight, while the professional is obviously a self-seeking tradesman. Cultured persons delight to entertain amateurs; but professionals sit at the second table. No one but an amateur may represent a self-respecting school or college in athletics; and a single fall from grace is as effective in destroying the athlete's amateur status as physical contact with a Kadja destroys forever the caste of a former Brahmin. In certain sports amateurs may participate in "open" championship tournaments, but in others it is fatal for an amateur to participate even in a single contest with or opposing a professional, and amateurs take great care that no professional is ever permitted to participate in "amateur" competition.

The justification for this highly arbitrary and ill-bred procedure is ostensibly to protect the purity of amateur athletics. Actually it serves no better purpose than to prohibit games between the best players in each caste, while at worst it results in unfair discrimination against many true artists in sports, fastening upon them a degrading title¹ which they deserve far less than their amateur colleagues who strive for that supremely selfish reward (and medium of exchange), personal glory.

If the caste system in athletics served a useful purpose it might be pardoned for the harm it causes. But

¹In sports the title of "professional" is degrading chiefly because amateur organizations make it so by their excluding tactics.

caste is determined so exclusively in terms of a single symbol (which has lost its power of discrimination) that those who reject one medium of exchange for another which is more potent (those who prefer glory to money) are now declared to be the true amateurs, although theoretically they are the least praiseworthy of professionals.¹

2. Those who administer the present amateur athletic tradition are led, by the very logic of their position, to declare that an athlete who once accepts money for performance is forever after a professional. In order to administer the present amateur rules at all this assumption is inevitable, but that it is absolutely false in fact must be clear to all who realize that amateurism is an attitude of mind, which must ebb and flow within each individual. Moreover, the very acts of registering amateurs and declaring others to be beyond the pale must have a destructive effect on the innocence of mind, or consciousness of ulterior motive, which characterizes true amateurism. Thus amateur athletic organizations, by their most fundamental activity, tend to destroy the spirit of amateurism.²

3. It would not be just to impute to the present amateur tradition all that is improper in games and

¹ If it were proper to make any moral distinction between classes the acknowledged professionals in sport belong to the higher class today. Such a distinction would be unfair to the great body of professed amateurs, however. For the past quarter of a century the tradition has been developing that refusal to accept money for performance is praiseworthy and that striving for glory is proper. Present-day athletes are not to be blamed for accepting and living by a tradition, even though the tradition is false. On the contrary, our present-day amateurs deserve all the honor which is due those who strive to attain society's accepted ideals.

² See notes pages 113 and 114.

sports, yet it must be observed that justice itself may be served less well in amateur than in professional sports, and perhaps it is least well served in those sports where the amateur rules are most rigidly enforced. Today there is no outcry when one amateur team defeats another by an overwhelming score. In professional sport such an occurrence would be laughed or booed off-stage before it had got well under way. In automobile racing the cubic capacities of motors are rigidly restricted to prevent any racer from securing an unfair advantage; but in amateur sport it is common for a powerful football team to meet and humiliate a puny opponent without the spectators being greatly concerned for the fairness of the situation. In yacht racing, where but little attention is paid to one's amateur status "one-design" races are most popular; but in amateur sport "equality of physical powers between opponents" is seldom the subject of interest or the object of any great endeavors. These contrasts might not be so significant were it not for the fact that amateur sport draws its recruits very largely from schools and colleges where they should have learned fair play above all.

It is not insisted that the present amateur tradition is responsible for the greater failure of amateur athletes to observe the fundamentals of justice in fair play. Probably it is true, nevertheless, that amateur athletics provide more examples of inequality between opponents than do professional sports, if for the single reason that but few who pay to witness professional

sports would tolerate any great inequalities between opponents.¹

4. The suggestion that the amateur tradition be abandoned would at once raise bitter opposition from school and college athletic associations and alumni, for the strength of amateurism today resides in these institutions.

The reason is obvious: professionals would not be truly representative of the school; but the implication involved also is obvious and inescapable: *victory would then have no real meaning*. And what is this real meaning which both student body and alumni desire to attach to victory? It is that students and alumni desire to identify themselves with victory, and everyone senses the fact that the vicariously-earned glory which victory brings to students and alumni would be insignificant, if not degrading, were professionals utilized as their representatives; that is, if victory could be traced so directly to the weight of filthy lucre which made it possible.² But we should tread carefully on the prac-

¹There are exceptions to most rules, and doubtless some may be found for the rule stated above as, for example, the great following which recently has supported the New York American League baseball team. But this team was supported largely because of its star players. A Philadelphia team of bygone years which was practically "unbeatable" was literally disbanded because spectators were not interested in seeing contests between poorly-matched teams. Moreover it is an axiom among professional promoters that "a close race" and "uncertainty over the outcome" swell the gate receipts, while the "setup" or "sure winners" promise poor returns.

²Perhaps there is no single precious bit of absurdity so thoroughly ingrained in the hearts of the American people as the ability to arrogate to themselves some of the "glory" of a winning athletic team. Mr. Everett Dean Martin, in *The Behavior of Crowds* has pointed out with great clearness that intense devotion to one's group is often a subtle method of praising one's self. Perhaps school and college sport devotees have fallen victims to the same psychological trap, and cheer their representatives in the hope that they themselves may acquire merit through the exploits of others,—without realizing what they do.

tice of cheering and being proud of one's team, for this criticism borders so closely on a denial of the ideal of loyalty. The purpose of the present exposition is fully met by observing that if college athletes were paid for their services *in money* the student body and alumni would not be nearly so interested in the result of contests. And this is a situation greatly to be desired. Non-players have no *right* to the reflected glory they assume is theirs. If the amateur tradition were abandoned the unsympathetic hysteria which accompanies interschool sports would be greatly tempered. If a little education on the lack of any real meaning of scores were then added, it is not beyond the range of possibilities that in the better schools and colleges at least the demand for a false victory would evaporate almost overnight.¹

5. Probably true amateurism—playing the game for its own sake—is dealt its most serious blow by those amateur athletic organizations which organize the city or state or nation or world for championship tournaments. For through them games and sports have been taken out of the category of casual, innocent and recreative activities, to be organized along business lines with prizes and “honors” taking the place of money rewards. These tournaments subordinate everything (except observance of rules) to the ulterior motive of selfish glory, for the chief goal of such par-

¹This statement is based on the assumption that in schools and colleges the ideal of fair play will again become appreciated and equality between teams will be striven for; moreover that to the better educated classes the scores of games will cease to be interpreted as denoting victory or defeat of any significant nature. Under such

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ticipation is the championship. Moreover a single failure ends participation in the popular elimination tournaments; therefore success for oneself and defeat of one's opponent is essential to glory or even to continuance in the tournament.

Championship tournaments always tend to drive out the amateur spirit; they offer as bait the worst form of reward for "success"; they professionalize the spirit of all who take them seriously, that is, selfishly; and he who refuses to take his amateur sport seriously is described a "poor sport," a "quitter," or simply "queer."¹

6. Nor can "amateurism" escape censure for its effect on our conception of competition.

The characteristic activity of amateur organizations is, as has been hinted already, the conduct of "honor" or championship tournaments which center interest, not in the game itself, but in the scores resulting therefrom. In such tournaments the game is played most truly on the form board or elimination chart. The

(Continued from page 119)

conditions it is obvious that there would be no motive in employing professionals.

This is a *rational* defense of the statement in the text that "if the amateur tradition were abandoned . . . demands for false victory would evaporate overnight." The *practical* answer is that the present rules and tradition do not prevent colleges from bringing to their schools, through offers of payments of various potent sorts, the best athletic talent which professional or "loyal" scouts can find. It is doubtful if more competent football players (of college age and prerequisites) exist than are today to be found in colleges. If there were, some college would have them, unless a professional promoter were to offer more for their services than any college,—an event which sometimes happens, when the whole "amateur" community blames the individual for accepting a higher bid than that made by the college.

¹On December 27, 1928 the New York State Public High School Athletic Association abolished all of its state championship tournaments. It is expected, as a result, that eventually sectional championships will be abandoned also.

contests themselves are mere preliminaries to the posting of names on these charts. Thus, personalities are thrown into violent opposition, for the victory of one *means* the humiliation and elimination of his opponent. No longer do opponents serve each other, for the game is only a means to some other end. Each clever return of a tennis ball in elimination tournaments, *means*, not an opportunity for more sport, but a threat of the end of play.

Under these circumstances opponents must be highly trained in the outward forms of good sportsmanship even to "keep up a front," while their faces betray the unhappy fact that ulterior motives have triumphed over the amateur spirit.

The foregoing analysis must provide a melancholy picture for those who have hoped, through the artificial means of a rigid caste system, to preserve in games and sports the true spirit of amateurism. The picture has not been overdrawn, however. Rather has it been sketched too vaguely to bring out its lights and shadows.

For the present amateur tradition in sports has permitted the maturing of a highly artificial tradition in creative or self-expressive life. No one insists that the artist in music or sculpture or dancing or acting—or in any other art in the world save athletics—is defiled by accepting money for services rendered within the scope of his art. Rather do we delight to aid per-

sons who prove most worthy by providing them with money to purchase freedom, that they may improve themselves further and, perchance, provide us with nobler examples of their genius. Thus, no one professes to have any less regard for Bauer or Bach, Sargent or Titian, Conrad or Shakespeare because these artists received money for their contributions to human happiness and culture. On the contrary, they provide us with examples of the noblest accomplishments in their own fields, and stimulation to all to attain higher goals than ever before.¹

Nor are musicians pitted against each other to determine championships. True music lovers who possess insight into the devitalizing effects of championships have too great a regard for their art. Whether Ignace Paderewski is a better pianist than Joseph Hoffman is a matter of personal preference with each individual who chooses to compare them; and no sane person would attempt to stage a contest to determine a "championship."²

¹ We may profitably consider, in contrast to the field of games and sports, that of music. Sincere advocates of athletic amateurism may protest that music and athletics are not comparable but they are eminently so. Musicians sing and play for both enjoyment and reward. No auditor, manager, promoter, or association president is concerned for *their* amateur status, and in the natural course of events the most proficient musicians will be paid to please and stimulate others. No one believes that, in a society guided by buy-and-sell traditions, remuneration for services rendered to others will destroy musicians' love of music; on the contrary all agree that it is a highly proper, self-respecting method of providing musical geniuses with leisure to pursue their art.

² The amateur athletic tradition may easily be reduced to absurdity by suggesting its application to other scholastic activities. Debaters might be disqualified for accepting money for speaking, or writing, or selling books. The school glee club, representing *Alma Mater* abroad should certainly be composed of amateurs who scorn to receive money for singing, or playing musical instruments. The school band . . . the valedictorian . . . the college press editorial staffs . . . The pecuniary standard of amateurism cannot survive analysis.

The harm already accomplished by the amateur tradition in athletics is difficult to estimate. Possibly it has induced more hypocrisy in sport than exists in any other art—for the athlete is, at best, an artist. Certainly it has stratified sportsmen into upper and nether castes, to the infinite harm of the upper or amateur caste. Probably, too, it has harmed also those individuals toward whom it has pointed with thumbs inverted. A social stigma makes a heavy burden, no matter how grossly unfair it may be. Thousands of young college men annually are led by the amateur rule to handicap themselves financially (by rejecting opportunities to earn honest money) in order that their collegiate amateur status may not be jeopardized, while other thousands learn to prevaricate. Finally, the amateur tradition has fostered the exploitation of tens of thousands of otherwise unselfish and un-self-conscious individuals through the medium of vicious "championships," thus contributing to their degradation into selfish, self-conscious professionals in spirit and in deed.

Apparently the best of motives are not enough to protect the spirit of play in sport; and certainly the pecuniary criterion of amateurism, which once might have had some validity is, in a highly commercialized civilization, now rendered valueless, and the time is at hand for reconstruction.

Those who would protect the amateur spirit must first recognize the true character of amateurism. It is supremely a thing of the spirit rather than of the flesh, and is to be measured only in psychological terms. But outsiders cannot successfully penetrate the mind or spirit of the performer to discover the truth; and even if they could do so the shifting motives of the artist would confound any attempt to classify him permanently. Therefore, to brand any artist either a professional or an amateur is a useless gesture at best, while at worst the act of branding (with either iron, but especially when "amateur" is used) is so harmful both to the spirit of the artist and to the integrity of his art that it must be condemned without reservation.

For, after all, the spirit of the amateur is the spirit of youth: the spirit which seeks to express itself by creating something which will reflect its exquisite and infinite, because innocent, *joie de vivre*. Youth knows not that itself exists. Youth, the true and beautiful youth, thinks not of itself. Youth lives . . . and such living is play, or amateurism, whether it be in the school or on the playground, in the counting room or in the drawing room, in the laboratory or in the field, in the earth or on the mountain top, in the flesh or in the spirit. Youth—amateurism—love—these lie very close together in life; but they are too evanescent to be captured in a net; and the very act of investigation into their Actuality, or of discovery that they exist must, by creating a self-consciousness which is the

forerunner of self-seeking, inevitably tend to destroy the very soul of their existence.

If it is necessary to distinguish between amateurs and professionals in athletics by all means should each player be permitted to designate his own status for each occasion. It were infinitely better that the amateur tradition be abandoned, and that all artificial stratification of athletes be discarded, both in the interests of amateurism and in the interests of life itself.

CHAPTER X

Summary and Prospect

The distinction between revolution and evolution lies almost wholly in the point of view and breadth of vision of the judge. To a former generation, from horse-drawn to motor-driven vehicles must have seemed a revolutionary change in means of human movement; but to the student of civilization it may appear to be no more than a natural and unimportant step along a gently sloping grade, so much do our interpretations depend on the length of time or amount of change we contemplate. Whether we look backwards or forwards is not nearly so important as that we do look some distance in at least one direction.

To many laymen the change from coach-controlled to player-controlled contests must appear revolutionary, but these persons must be handicapped by a lack of knowledge concerning developments in the educational field, for the new-old adjustment is only a natural application to sports of an educational principle on which there is general agreement. Similarly, the other new concepts discussed in Part II will fit harmoniously into a canvas which pictures a broad educational program, though each one by itself might appear to be a splash of unattractive color, and out of place in a society which does not now "think or act that way."

He who sees the suggestions contained in this volume as steps toward a remote goal, or as details in a great canvas, will most quickly understand their individual significance and accept their validity.

The brief suggestions contained in this chapter may serve to give the reader a clue to the perspective which the writer carried to his task, and render clearer the place and meaning of its details. It is chiefly for these reasons that they were prepared.

The immediate educational values of giving full responsibility to players are unassailable and must be apparent even to the tyro. Ultimately it is not too much to hope that the increased powers of initiative and self reliance, together with the experience provided in various phases of cooperation which accrue to boys who manage their own games, may be of enormous value in business, political and social life.

That transfer of learning may occur will not be denied by any competent person. Identical elements are not far to seek. . . . Moreover it is the coach's duty to ensure that transfer does take place—that boys who learn, in sports, the value of cooperation, how to make choices, how successfully to assume responsibility for their choices, and something of the power and significance of the ballot *are made to appreciate* that similar situations exist in other phases of life, which must be met just as the sports problems are met.

A second immediate value, which has been pointed out several times already, is that coaches, under the new adjustment, will less and less be held responsible for victory and therefore may, more and more, turn their interests to other goals than the humiliation of opposing teams. The ultimate values of new attitudes and objectives on the part of coaches are difficult to estimate, for they are overwhelmingly great. As the captain establishes the spirit on his ship, and the conductor determines the character of the music played by his orchestra, so may the coach control the spirit and character of his pupils in sports. If he is just they will be just, if he is sympathetic so may they develop their powers of sympathy, if he is courteous and honest it may be predicted that his pupils will reflect his character, at least while they are under his care. "Example is the best teacher . . ." The General Regulation is simply a *first step* towards the release of the coach to do other than "win games."

To fail to secure, or at least try to secure, equality of physical abilities between competing teams is to teach, in a subtle way, unfair play. On the other hand, to insist on at least approximate equality of physical powers and playing skills will develop a posi-

tive understanding and appreciation of justice in sports. As has been observed before, such practices are common outside of scholastic circles. Yacht racing organizations strive constantly to reduce the unfairness involved in permitting the large boat to win the honors. Even prize-fighting is limited in the same way. The 130-pounder is never pitted against the heavy-weight, and even in the unlimited class no one is interested in a bout in which one contestant has undoubted superiority of strength and skill.

Likewise, in scholastic athletics the ideal of equality must eventually triumph over passionate and ruthless desire for victory; or what seems to be an innate sense of fair play may be strangled during the school years of growing children.

If fair play is explained, emphasized, and illustrated in scholastic sports it may be a relatively simple matter for teachers to transfer this concept to business and social life. As a physically robust gentleman scorns to strike down his physical inferior in sport, so may he one day realize that economic and industrial victories over technically and financially weaker opponents do not conform to the ideals of fair play learned on the playground. Unequal economic struggles may continue to be the fate of gentlemen, but industrial victories resulting therefrom must come to be regarded somewhat regretfully, as any good sportsman must regret flooring a weaker opponent, however "necessary" it may be. The effects of sport traditions on Anglo-

Saxon character and culture have often been extolled. They may not have been exaggerated.

At present, opponents in sports are expected to look upon each other as competitors striving for honors which can go only to one side. Thus the element of competition is grafted on to personalities, and opponents gradually forget that they serve each other.

To change this attitude to one of close friendship between opponents ought not to be a difficult task. In certain spheres such an attitude exists today in spite of the efforts of irrational oldsters brought up in a tradition of personal mistrust and conflict; and in spite of championship tournaments.

Ultimately, however, conscious and understanding acceptance of the fact that opponents serve each other, and that true competition is properly with nature and one's own unsocial impulses and habits, may completely modify the attitudes of all who engage in so-called competitive sports. If properly directed it is not too much to hope that players in these sports may attain the same spirit of comradeship which now exists between those who share in such individualistic sports as fishing, hunting, mountain climbing and star gazing. . . . Such a goal is worthy of any educator's greatest efforts.

Probably the most nearly "revolutionary" step suggested in this volume is that the formal stratification of athletes into amateurs and professionals be abandoned. It must be acknowledged that this stratification, and the practices which it has protected and condoned, have wrought great harm to the true spirit of amateurism; but a whole structure of interschool sports might topple if it were removed tomorrow. It is the writer's conviction that such a collapse will not necessarily take place. Rather will more effective steps be taken to equalize the powers of opponents; and the hysteria attending games will largely disappear, since the score has little meaning for intelligent spectators who have attained to some real insight. Moreover "fans" (especially in colleges and universities where reason must prevail) will no longer derive any great satisfaction from the "victory" of one group of players over another group of players, since they must realize that, even if the score had any real meaning, nevertheless the glory is slight and cannot be transferred to spectators.

Amateur athletic championships (which depend on the stratification of athletes) should be abandoned at the earliest moment since they most completely destroy

the amateur spirit. It must be admitted that a most effective means of destroying the play spirit in athletics is to render games and sports potentially remunerative to their devotees. But the most attractive remunerations of all are promises of glory. The very existence of an amateur championship tournament thus renders even the most innocent games mere stepping-stones to the great rewards of national notoriety. Consequently what would otherwise be play becomes, for an increasing number of youthful athletes each year, more and more self-seeking drudgery—repetition *ad nauseum* for the sake of technical skill, victory, championship, honor! . . .

The field of "championships" should and will, in the long run, be left to commercial organizations to exploit as they will. The best way to combat *them* will be to teach children that joy in playing is worth more than glory or money (the chief use of both of these is to purchase a second-hand joy) and to urge players not to enter such tournaments except as a means of self-advancement to worthier goals. Ultimately we may hope, from the elimination of amateur championships, for a re-birth of the true play spirit in sports, even among those who today strive most energetically for selfish glory; while the great artists, whose superior accomplishments afford us spectacles of supreme performances, will no longer be paid with scorn as well as money, but will be accepted naturally as true masters of their art. Under such conditions the spirit of play

may again permeate sports and yield to players everywhere satisfactions which now are literally undreamed-of.

Nor may the benefits of such a program stop within the borders of the field of athletics. If the method of honors and championships can be discarded as incentives in sports the example set may lead to similar moves in other scholastic fields. One of the greatest misfortunes in life comes through the activities of teachers who, unwittingly and with the best of motives, render children self-conscious, then self-seeking, then anti-social in spirit. This disaster is accomplished by pitting children against each other in classrooms and elsewhere through the use of grades and marks, through "honors," and through the hundreds of other unhappy extrinsic incentives which awaken the selfish "I."

It may be too much to expect, in our modern world of intricate social relationships, that the spirit of youth may be preserved; but occasionally it happens. . . .

Participation in games and sports should lead naturally to deeper sympathies and greater understandings, not only among players on each team but between opponents. The meaning of sympathy which should be implied in our use of the term, however, should not include a weak or lacrimose sentimentalism. To sympathize need never mean "to be sorry for" the object

of one's sympathy. The strong man who consciously rejects what he calls "sympathy" really rejects an assumption of superiority on the part of the sympathizer. True sympathy is neither "soft" nor superior; it is the emotional counterpart of intellectual open-mindedness, and is a fundamental prerequisite to justice, courtesy, loyalty, and cooperation.

Laudable efforts have been made to reduce the virulence of animosities which arise out of athletic contests, of which suppers, banquets for both teams, mutual good-will rallies and other complimentary exchanges are examples. However effective such affairs may be (and they are highly to be commended as natural concomitants of athletic contests) they ought not to be *necessary*. The games themselves should provide these experiences, and will provide them when players realize that opponents are friends rather than competitors—friends who aid nature to make the real competition worthy of the metal to be tried.

"This is life," will be the criticism offered to the hopes and fears expressed above. "Life is hard: there must be victors and defeated; the goal of all effort is to win." "Your ideals may be acceptable in an ideal world but they do not apply here below!" "We must build men, not mollicoddles."

To all of which we can only reply as gently as possible that we are not interested in perpetuating the jungle phases of human existence. If life has any meaning, if progress has any measuring rod, if culture has any touchstone, if humanity itself has any cosmic

significance, it is to be found in the decrease of natural tendencies to dominate and in the realization of deeper and broader understanding and appreciation. These are possible only when sympathy has relaxed the grip of egocentric emotions and ambitions.¹ But sympathy, which is the leavening of all human relationships, does not thrive on victory, nor is it developed as a consequence of conflict in which victory is the goal—unless it be possible for both opponents at once to be victorious. Those adjustments, therefore, which reduce pressure on the coaches for victory, which elevate fair play above “victory,” and which result in a general realization that the score is of negligible consequence must promote the sum of human sympathy, and so increase the quantity and raise the quality of human activities: give life more abundantly.

Finally, returning to our original subject, which provides an essential first step toward the attainment of most of the objectives discussed in this volume, it is not impossible that pupil freedom with responsibility in sports may suggest similar policies to teachers and administrators in other phases of school life. For example, it is a general practice for adult music instructors to lead their pupils in public performances. In every orchestra there must be at least one pupil

¹An analogy may profitably be drawn between mental and physical activity. Sympathy bears a similar relation to and performs the same service for the mind that “rubdowns” of muscles perform for the body.

who is a potential leader, who might acquire valuable experience performing the duties which most music instructors now reserve for themselves. It is even possible that pupils may be found who will evoke responses from pupil musicians which adults cannot arouse.

Doubtless all the arguments presented to oppose player responsibility in sports will be brought to bear against this suggestion. Though disguised as to form and content, they will be identical in implications. "Too much responsibility"; "The orchestra (or chorus or glee club) will not play or sing so well"; "The best time to teach is during public performances!" (or perhaps during rest periods!) "Only the coach knows when to silence the horns"; and so on. To all of these objections answers may be provided out of the experience given in games and sports.¹

Nor should the effect of example cease with extra-curricular activities. Pupils who learn to conduct their own sports may be trusted (or learn) to conduct their own studies. The old-fashioned study hall—an expense to the citizens, a bore to teachers and a reflection on the integrity of pupils—may well cease to exist in the senior high school.

Other proper and desirable applications of the principle of pupil freedom with responsibility could be

¹ Perhaps the best reply would be to recall the occasion of the presentation to Mrs. Evangeline Lindbergh of honorary life membership in the National Education Association at Boston in February, 1928. Colonel Lindbergh and some 8,000 people were present and were entertained several times by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Glee Club. This was one of the most momentous occasions experienced by any college or university musical organization. Yet it was led (after its instructor had introduced it) by a student who stepped out from the ranks to take the baton.

made almost without number, to the great benefit of both pupils and teachers. The so-called "project method" of teaching involves this principle as one fundamental guide to detailed methods of procedure. Recently the faculties of the New York State Normal Schools attended a two-day convention at Syracuse, leaving their classes to be conducted by students, and the experiment was completely successful. The "reading session" recently adopted at Harvard, when certain students attend no classes, but prepare, in their own ways, though under guidance, for examinations is but another expression of a new youth movement in America.

Throughout this volume teachers and educational procedures have been the objects of analysis and correction. The author has been aware of this defect but it were better that criticism and suggestions for improvement come from within than from without.

It would not be fair to education, though, to leave the subject of player-responsibility without observing that teachers are not alone in obstructing the natural play-life of youth. Probably they interfere less completely but more competently than do other adults. Both groups may act from what they conceive to be the highest motives, but, as amateur athletic bodies must discover, good motives are not sufficient guides to best methods.

Above all must teachers and parents avoid forcing self-consciousness upon their children. It comes soon enough of itself and should be combatted rather than encouraged. Any device which awakens conscious self-approval coupled with acquisitiveness, like prizes for good behavior, medals for superior scholarship, certificates for good sportsmanship, and loving cups for superior fair play inevitably tend to destroy the very qualities for which they are awarded.¹

In this matter of character development teachers must move forward cautiously. If games and sports are used by adults to teach fair play the less children know of the teacher's plans the better for the children. Indirect methods are imperative here. Otherwise the virtues learned will be conscious virtues and so become only half-virtues at best, or even no virtues at all, but only consciously-used means of securing social approval.

In Europe "new youth movements" come largely from youth itself. In America there is abundant evidence to indicate that parents will voluntarily invest their children with every prerogative which youth can bear. But privilege, without responsibility and without a saving sense of fair play and a developed instinct of sympathy becomes license, endangering the very qualities which freedom should develop. Given these, however, together with openmindedness and the habit

¹Prizes may most safely be used as incentives in the lowest grades. They become increasingly dangerous in the upper grades, however, and in post-adolescent life are to be condemned without exception—if only because they are, at best, *childish*.

of critical approach to all problems, youth may realize a higher Destiny than when it is crushed under the load of civilization's ashes.

At all events, Youth must be trusted. If Maturity provides the best mechanical adjustments for growth and seeks by every means to provide its heirs with an emotional background of sympathy, it has fulfilled its greatest opportunity, and has played fairly with posterity.

Acknowledgements

Before the bar of his own conscience the author of this collection of iconoclasms must bow in humility for he has, in his own play and work, embraced and proclaimed the virtue of practically every program or idea which he now rejects. Moreover he realizes that above all he himself deserves the brand of "selfish ulterior motives"—by seeking notoriety through the destruction of certain innocent, though false, ideals of amateur sportsmen. Thus, he finds himself hoist on his own petard, and looks down from this uncomfortable perch to view with uncertain emotions the aspect of a play-world which may be rendered more self-conscious but not more happy by his efforts to discover and reveal the truth.

Image-breaking is not a happy task. There may be some who can do it gracefully; but it breeds discord, even in the breaker's heart. Worst of all, its spirit is destructive or, if a plan exists, the very plan itself is harmed. But there is no gift without its price. If the present generation does desire to preserve in children the precious spirit of amateurism it must be prepared to meet the cost to itself. Perhaps an inevitable incident in this program must be anger toward those who expose our common follies. Let not this anger blind us to the truth which they reveal.

"Thinking is dangerous" . . . Perhaps some

who read these pages must henceforth become more introspective, and therefore less true amateurs in life. Nevertheless the author proceeds in comparative peace to acknowledge the danger and even to welcome the event, for loss of innocent joy is the proper lot and destiny of educators. Like priests of other religions, ministers of education must suffer disillusionment, that they may serve more effectively the onrushing generations of children adventuring in life.

This volume is not the creation of a single spirit. Like all other products of a matured civilization it must be viewed, in fairness to the scores of authors who contributed to its final form and content as a precipitate from the mixing of many compounds.

Part I belongs to a fairly restricted group of authors both in time and space. Its very existence is a natural and inevitable consequence of the courageous activities of certain public school administrators who proposed, adopted, administered and supported the so-called General Regulation when it was but little more than a shaky hypothesis.

Among these, the first and then the most conclusive actions came from a group of superintendents of schools in the New York State Capital District: Erle L. Ackley of Johnstown, William A. Andrews of Ballston Spa, Basil W. Conrad of Scotia, Arvie Eldred

of Troy, David R. Finley of Hudson Falls, Edward Hayward of Cohoes, W. Leon Hutt of Hoosick Falls, C. Edward Jones of Albany, Evan E. Jones of Mechanicville, Harry W. Langworthy of Gloversville, Wilbur H. Lynch of Amsterdam, Alexander Miller of Glens Falls, Charles L. Mosher of Saratoga Springs, Frank C. Roda of Waterford, Montgomery C. Smith of Hudson, Albert J. Stoddard of Schenectady and Neil K. White of Lansingburg.

Superintendent Lynch of Amsterdam was instrumental in securing the attention of, and action by, the Superintendent's Council; and Principal George L. Bennett of Yonkers provided the opportunity for an appeal to the Associated Academic Principals.

Scores of other superintendents and principals throughout the State took steps, as members of leagues, "to return the games to the boys themselves." The names of their cities and villages are shown on the maps in Chapter III. A few exceptions should be noted here. Superintendents Daniel J. Kelly of Binghamton, Harvey O. Hutchinson of Elmira and Clyde P. Wells of Batavia, not wishing to deprive their pupils of the benefits of the General Regulation, even for another year, did not wait for concerted action but acted independently of their neighbors.

Among directors of physical education, independent actions (often at the cost of temporary loss of local popularity) were taken by Carl H. Burkhardt of Buffalo, Herman J. Norton of Rochester, Paul Krimmel

of Syracuse, Lawrence S. Hill of Albany, W. Edwin Long of Oneonta, Clinton S. Leonard of Scarsdale, Ernest W. Craumer of Corning, Charles A. O'Brien of Addison, Dayton A. Blunt of Painted Post, Francis J. Moench of the Cortland Normal School and George W. Schaeffer of the Fredonia Normal School.

Certain leaders in physical education not in control of public school programs have materially aided the introduction and support of the new program. These include, especially, Carl L. Schrader, State Supervisor of Physical Education in Massachusetts; Jesse Feiring Williams, Professor of Physical Education in Teachers College, Columbia University; Jay B. Nash, Professor of Physical Education in the School of Education, New York University; John H. Wendelken, Registrar of the Savage School for Physical Education and Albert H. Sharpe, Director, Ithaca School of Physical Education; while the example provided by the directors of physical education and basketball coaches in Williams College, Amherst College and Wesleyan College, and by the Detroit public high schools served to prove to local doubters that New York State did not stand alone in support of player freedom in athletics.

Letters of approval and promises of support which were very useful at a crucial moment during 1928 came from the following State officials: Clifford Brownell, Director of Health and Physical Education, Ohio; Henry S. Curtis, Director of Hygiene and Physical Education, Missouri; E. W. Everts, Director of Phys-

ical Education and Health Education, Minnesota; Elliot V. Graves, Supervisor of Physical Education, Virginia; Allen G. Ireland, Director of Physical Education and Health, Connecticut; William G. Moorhead, Director, Division of Health and Physical Education, Pennsylvania; N. P. Neilson, Chief, Division of Health and Physical Education, California; C. M. Miles, Supervisor of Physical and Health Education, Florida; P. S. Prince, State Director of Physical Education, Delaware; Melville Stewart, Supervisor of Physical Education, West Virginia; Alden Thompson, Director of Physical Education, Michigan; while James E. Rogers, Director of the National Physical Education Service helped to spread the new plan to other states, and was a constant source of aid and encouragement.

Four directors of physical education immediately in charge of the administration of the General Regulation have provided examples of nearly ideal practice. These are Eugene Hofmeister, in Buffalo; Carl G. Chamberlain in Rochester; Isadore Yavits in Albany and Francis J. Moench in the Cortland Normal School.

"General Regulation Number One" (so-called to avoid a tabling action by a single individual) was drawn by members of the Central Committee of the New York State Public High School Athletic Association, and was accepted and given strong support thereafter by the following members of this body: E. A. Bauer, Supervisor, Physical Education, State

Department of Education, Albany; Carl H. Burkhardt, Supervisor of Physical Education, Buffalo; Heth G. Coons, High School Principal, Lake Placid; Arvie Eldred, Superintendent of Schools, Troy; Everett T. Grout, Supervisor of Physical Education, Schenectady; Eugene Hofmeister, Assistant Director of Physical Education, Buffalo; Harvey O. Hutchinson, Superintendent of Schools, Elmira; Herman J. Norton, Director of Health Education, Rochester; J. Guy Prindle, High School Principal, Ilion; Charles E. Riley, High School Principal, Oswego; Elmer K. Smith, Assistant Director Health Education, Rochester; Seward S. Travis, High School Principal, Sayville; Rollo W. Thompson, High School Principal, Utica; Floyd B. Watson, High School Principal, Rockville Centre.

Quotations from the writings of authorities on psychology and education have been useful in securing the approval and support of certain otherwise hostile individuals and groups. These are acknowledged in the text. Special thanks are due, however, to those who prepared statements for this volume. These include George F. Arps, Dean of the School of Education and Psychology, The Ohio State University; Arthur I. Gates, Professor of Educational Psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University; Henry W. Holmes, Dean of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University; William Heard Kilpatrick, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia

University; John Dewey, Professor of Philosophy, Columbia University; Lewis M. Terman, Executive Head, Department of Psychology, Stanford University; Alfred E. Stearns, Headmaster, Phillips Andover Academy; and Jesse Feiring Williams, Professor of Physical Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Three periodicals were instrumental in furthering interest in player-responsibility. The editors of *The Yale Alumni Weekly* conducted a brief campaign in 1927; the editors of *Life* printed, during 1927-1928 two pointed cartoons ridiculing the more absurd phases of coach-control; and the editor of the *Athletic Journal* wrote a three-column editorial on "Should Coaches Be Employed to Instruct Athletes?" His concluding words: "If a coach is not competent to direct athletics according to the proper educational principles, then he should be replaced by someone who is qualified to do the work as it should be done," will be approved by all who have at heart the best interests of schoolboy athletes.

Several normal and high school athletes prepared statements giving their opinions concerning the new adjustment. These were: George W. Doran, George F. Grader, Isadore Herman and Ray Knell of Buffalo; Harold Smith and Ray Wingard of Rochester; Louis Hatkoff of Albany; and Walter Bock, Fred Collins and Edwin Gale of the Cortland Normal School.

Part II must own to a more cosmopolitan authorship, whose responsibility is not the less great because it is less definite. The writer's teachers, coaches and playmates must have had a part in forming and maturing the ideas outlined in Part II, but a greater burden must be borne by the authors of many books and essays read and loved. Among the latter, the ancients Plato, Cicero and Antonius must share responsibility with another; while among the moderns Frederich Nietzsche, Anatole France, John Dewey and Bertrand Russell must be held accountable.

Three others, however, are chiefly responsible for Part II: Joseph Conrad and Oswald Spengler, by their writings; and Charles Lindbergh, by his example of high courage and indestructible amateurism, which withstand every attack a sophisticated world can make upon them.

In the development and final formulation of his exposition the writer has been materially aided by the criticisms and advice of most of those named as "authors" of Part I. In addition to these men, W. W. H. Mustaine, Supervisor of Physical Education in the New York State Education Department; Abner P. Way, Assistant Director of Health Education in New York City and Eugene Hofmeister, Assistant Director of Physical Education in Buffalo, have been critics in whom great confidence has been placed.

To Commissioner Frank P. Graves, the writer is deeply grateful, not only for reviewing the manuscript, but also for help in solving critical problems of policy. He is thankful also to Harry Emerson Fosdick for an address delivered at the 1926 Convocation exercises of the University of the State of New York, in which the object of education was defined as "helping children to take intelligent charge of their own lives."

Let a man be either a hero or a saint. In between lies, not wisdom, but banality.—SPENGLER.

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